

# On the stability and convergence of a sliding-window variable-regularization recursive-least-squares algorithm

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## SUMMARY

A sliding-window variable-regularization recursive-least-squares algorithm is derived, and its convergence properties, computational complexity, and numerical stability are analyzed. The algorithm operates on a finite data window and allows for time-varying regularization in the weighting and the difference between estimates. Numerical examples are provided to compare the performance of this technique with the least mean squares and affine projection algorithms. Copyright © 2015 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Recursive-least-squares (RLS) and gradient-based algorithms are widely used in signal processing, estimation, identification, and control [1–9]. Under ideal conditions, that is, noiseless measurements and persistency of the data, these techniques are guaranteed to converge to the minimizer of a quadratic function [2, 5]. In practice, the accuracy of the estimates depends on the level of noise and the persistency of the data.

The standard RLS algorithm operates on a growing window of data, where new data are added to the RLS cost function as they become available, and past data are progressively discounted through the use of a forgetting factor. In contrast, sliding-window RLS algorithms [10–14] require no forgetting factor because they operate on a finite data window of fixed length, where new data replace past data in the RLS cost function. Sliding-window least squares techniques are available in both batch and recursive formulations. As shown in [11], sliding-window RLS algorithms have enhanced tracking performance compared with standard RLS algorithms in the presence of time-varying parameters.

In standard RLS, the positive definite initialization of the covariance matrix is the inverse of the weighting on a regularization term in a quadratic cost function. This regularization term compensates for the potential lack of persistency, ensuring that the cost function has a unique minimizer at each step. Traditionally, the regularization term is fixed for all steps of the recursion. An optimally regularized adaptive filtering algorithm with constant regularization is presented in [15]. However, variants of RLS with time-varying regularization have been developed in the context of adaptive filtering, echo cancelation, and affine projection [16–21].

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In the present work, we derive a novel sliding-window variable-regularization RLS (SW-VR-RLS) algorithm, where the weighting on the regularization term can change at each step. An additional extension presented in this paper also involves the regularization term. Specifically, the regularization term in standard RLS weights the difference between the next estimate and the initial estimate, while the regularization term in sliding-window RLS weights the difference between the next estimate and the estimate at the beginning of the sliding window. In the present paper, the regularization term weights the difference between the next estimate and an arbitrarily chosen time-varying vector. As a special case, the time-varying vector can be the current estimate or a recent estimate. These variable-regularization extensions of sliding-window RLS can facilitate trade-offs among transient error, rate of convergence, and steady-state error.

We derive the SW-VR-RLS equations and analyze their convergence properties in the absence of noise. While standard RLS entails the update of the estimate and the covariance matrix, sliding-window RLS involves the update of an additional symmetric matrix of size  $n \times n$ , where  $n$  is the dimension of the estimate. Furthermore, SW-VR-RLS requires updating of one more symmetric matrix of size  $n \times n$  to account for the time-varying regularization.

A preliminary version of the SW-VR-RLS algorithm appeared in the conference proceedings [22] without any analysis of convergence or numerical stability. The goal of the present paper is to provide a more complete development of the SW-VR-RLS algorithm, including an analysis of convergence and numerical stability.

In this paper, a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is positive semidefinite ( $A \geq 0$ ) if it is symmetric and has non-negative eigenvalues, and a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is positive definite ( $A > 0$ ) if it is symmetric and has positive eigenvalues. Furthermore, if  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , then  $\|A\|$  denotes the maximum singular value of  $A$ , and if  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\|x\|$  denotes the Euclidean norm of  $x$ .

## 2. THE NON-RECURSIVE SOLUTION

Let  $r$  be a non-negative integer. For all integers  $i \geq -r$ , let  $b_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , where  $A_i$  is positive semidefinite. For all integers  $i \geq 0$ , let  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $R_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , where  $R_i$  is positive semidefinite. Assume that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $\sum_{i=k-r}^{k-1} A_i + R_k$  is positive definite. In practice, the matrix  $A_k$  and the vector  $b_k$  depend on data, whereas the regularization weighting  $R_k$  and regularization parameter  $\alpha_k$  are chosen by the user. For all  $k \geq 0$ , the sliding-window, variable-regularization quadratic cost is defined by

$$J_k(x) \triangleq \sum_{i=k-r}^k x^T A_i x + b_i^T x + (x - \alpha_k)^T R_k (x - \alpha_k), \quad (1)$$

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x_0 = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{i=-r}^0 A_i + R_0 \right)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=-r}^0 b_i - 2R_0 \alpha_0 \right)$  is the minimizer of  $J_0(x)$ . Note that the regularization term  $(x - \alpha_k)^T R_k (x - \alpha_k)$  in (1) contains weighting  $R_k$  and parameter  $\alpha_k$ , which are potentially time varying. For all  $k \geq 0$ , the unique minimizer  $x_k$  of (1) is

$$x_k = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k A_i + R_k \right)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k b_i - 2R_k \alpha_k \right). \quad (2)$$

### Example 1

Consider the weighted regularized least squares cost function

$$\mathcal{J}_k(x) \triangleq \sum_{i=k-r}^k (y_i - F_i^T x)^T W_i (y_i - F_i^T x) + (x - \alpha_k)^T R_k (x - \alpha_k),$$

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $r$  be a non-negative integer; and, for all  $i \geq -r$ , let  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^l$ ,  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $F_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l}$ ,  $R_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , and  $W_i \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$ , where  $W_i$  is positive definite. Furthermore, for all  $i \geq -r$ , define  $A_i \triangleq F_i W_i F_i^T$  and  $b_i \triangleq -2F_i W_i y_i$ . Then, for all  $k \geq 0$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathcal{J}_k(x) = J_k(x) +$

$\sum_{i=k-r}^k y_i^T W_i y_i$ . Thus, the minimizer of  $J_k(x)$  is also the minimizer of  $\mathcal{J}_k(x)$ . Moreover, it follows from (2) that the minimizer of  $\mathcal{J}_k(x)$  is given by

$$x_k = \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k F_i W_i F_i^T + R_k \right)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k F_i W_i y_i + R_k \alpha_k \right).$$

*Example 2*

Let  $n$  and  $r$  be positive integers, for  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , let  $a_i, c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , and, for all  $i \geq -r - n$ , let  $u_i, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ . Furthermore, for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $y_k$  satisfy the infinite impulse response model

$$y_k = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i y_{k-i} + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i u_{k-i}.$$

Next, for all  $i \geq -r$ , define  $\psi_i \triangleq [u_{i-1} \ \dots \ u_{i-n} \ y_{i-1} \ \dots \ y_{i-n}]^T$ , and consider the cost (1), where  $A_i \triangleq \psi_i \psi_i^T$  and  $b_i \triangleq -2y_i \psi_i$ . Define  $x_* \triangleq [a_1 \ \dots \ a_n \ c_1 \ \dots \ c_n]^T$ . The objective is to choose the regularization parameters  $R_k$  and  $\alpha_k$  such that the sequence of minimizers  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  of (1) converges to  $x_*$ . Note that, for all  $k \geq -r$ ,  $\text{rank } A_k \leq 1$ . As shown in Section 4, the rank of  $A_k$  affects the computational complexity of the recursive formulation of (2).

3. THE SW-VR-RLS SOLUTION

Defining

$$P_k \triangleq \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k A_i + R_k \right)^{-1}, \tag{3}$$

it follows that (2) can be written as

$$x_k = -\frac{1}{2} P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k b_i - 2R_k \alpha_k \right). \tag{4}$$

To express  $P_k$  recursively, consider the decomposition

$$A_k = \psi_k \psi_k^T, \tag{5}$$

where  $\psi_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n_k}$  and  $n_k \triangleq \text{rank } A_k$ . Next, for all  $k \geq 1$ , define

$$Q_k \triangleq \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^{k-1} A_i + R_k \right)^{-1} = (P_k^{-1} - A_k)^{-1}. \tag{6}$$

It follows from (5) and (6) that

$$P_k = (Q_k^{-1} + \psi_k \psi_k^T)^{-1}.$$

Using the matrix inversion lemma

$$(X + UCV)^{-1} = X^{-1} - X^{-1}U(C^{-1} + VX^{-1}U)^{-1}VX^{-1}, \tag{7}$$

with  $X = Q_k^{-1}$ ,  $U = \psi_k$ ,  $C = I_{n_k}$ , and  $V = \psi_k^T$ , where  $I_{n_k}$  is the  $n_k \times n_k$  identity matrix, implies that

$$P_k = Q_k - Q_k \psi_k (I_{n_k} + \psi_k^T Q_k \psi_k)^{-1} \psi_k^T Q_k.$$

To express  $Q_k$  recursively, for all  $k \geq 1$ , define

$$L_k \triangleq \left( \sum_{i=k-r-1}^{k-1} A_i + R_k \right)^{-1} = (Q_k^{-1} - A_{k-r-1})^{-1} = (Q_k^{-1} - \psi_{k-r-1} \psi_{k-r-1}^T)^{-1}. \quad (8)$$

Using (7) with  $X = L_k^{-1}$ ,  $U = \psi_{k-r-1}$ ,  $C = -I_{n_{k-r-1}}$ , and  $V = \psi_{k-r-1}^T$ , it follows that

$$Q_k = L_k - L_k \psi_{k-r-1} (-I_{n_{k-r-1}} + \psi_{k-r-1}^T L_k \psi_{k-r-1})^{-1} \psi_{k-r-1}^T L_k.$$

To express  $L_k$  recursively, we substitute (3) into itself to obtain

$$P_k^{-1} = \sum_{i=k-r}^k A_i + R_k = P_{k-1}^{-1} + A_k - A_{k-r-1} + R_k - R_{k-1}. \quad (9)$$

Thus, it follows from (6), (8), and (9) that

$$L_k = (P_{k-1}^{-1} + R_k - R_{k-1})^{-1}. \quad (10)$$

Next, we factor  $R_k - R_{k-1}$  as

$$R_k - R_{k-1} = \phi_k S_k \phi_k^T, \quad (11)$$

where  $\phi_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m_k}$ ,  $m_k \triangleq \text{rank}(R_k - R_{k-1})$ , and  $S_k \in \mathbb{R}^{m_k \times m_k}$  has the form  $S_k \triangleq \text{diag}(\pm 1, \dots, \pm 1)$ . Using (7) with  $X = P_{k-1}^{-1}$ ,  $U = \phi_k$ ,  $C = S_k$ , and  $V = \phi_k^T$ , it follows from (10) that

$$L_k = P_{k-1} - P_{k-1} \phi_k (S_k + \phi_k^T P_{k-1} \phi_k)^{-1} \phi_k^T P_{k-1}.$$

We now summarize the SW-VR-RLS algorithm.

*Algorithm 1*

For each  $k \geq 1$ , the unique minimizer  $x_k$  of (1) is given by

$$L_k = P_{k-1} - P_{k-1} \phi_k (S_k + \phi_k^T P_{k-1} \phi_k)^{-1} \phi_k^T P_{k-1}, \quad (12)$$

$$Q_k = L_k - L_k \psi_{k-r-1} (-I_{n_{k-r-1}} + \psi_{k-r-1}^T L_k \psi_{k-r-1})^{-1} \psi_{k-r-1}^T L_k, \quad (13)$$

$$P_k = Q_k - Q_k \psi_k (I_{n_k} + \psi_k^T Q_k \psi_k)^{-1} \psi_k^T Q_k, \quad (14)$$

$$x_k = -\frac{1}{2} P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k b_i - 2R_k \alpha_k \right), \quad (15)$$

where  $P_0 = \left( \sum_{i=-r}^0 A_i + R_0 \right)^{-1}$  and  $x_0 = -\frac{1}{2} P_0 \left( \sum_{i=-r}^0 b_i - 2R_0 \alpha_0 \right)$ .

As an alternative to Algorithm 1, the equation for  $x_k$  can be expressed using the recursion matrix  $P_k$ . First, it follows from (15) that

$$\sum_{i=k-r-1}^{k-1} b_i = -2P_{k-1}^{-1} x_{k-1} + 2R_{k-1} \alpha_{k-1}. \quad (16)$$

Using (9) and (16), it follows that (15) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} x_k &= -\frac{1}{2}P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r-1}^{k-1} b_i + b_k - b_{k-r-1} - 2R_k\alpha_k \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2}P_k (-2P_{k-1}^{-1}x_{k-1} + 2R_{k-1}\alpha_{k-1} + b_k - b_{k-r-1} - 2R_k\alpha_k) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2}P_k [-2(P_k^{-1} - A_k + A_{k-r-1} - R_k + R_{k-1})x_{k-1} + 2R_{k-1}\alpha_{k-1} + b_k - b_{k-r-1} - 2R_k\alpha_k] \\ &= x_{k-1} - P_k \left[ (A_k - A_{k-r-1})x_{k-1} + (R_k - R_{k-1})x_{k-1} + R_{k-1}\alpha_{k-1} + \frac{1}{2}(b_k - b_{k-r-1}) - R_k\alpha_k \right]. \end{aligned}$$

We now summarize the alternative SW-VR-RLS algorithm.

*Algorithm 2*

For each  $k \geq 1$ , the unique minimizer  $x_k$  of (1) is given by

$$L_k = P_{k-1} - P_{k-1}\phi_k (S_k + \phi_k^T P_{k-1}\phi_k)^{-1} \phi_k^T P_{k-1}, \tag{17}$$

$$Q_k = L_k - L_k\psi_{k-r-1} (-I_{n_{k-r-1}} + \psi_{k-r-1}^T L_k\psi_{k-r-1})^{-1} \psi_{k-r-1}^T L_k, \tag{18}$$

$$P_k = Q_k - Q_k\psi_k (I_{n_k} + \psi_k^T Q_k\psi_k)^{-1} \psi_k^T Q_k, \tag{19}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_k &= x_{k-1} - P_k \left[ (A_k - A_{k-r-1})x_{k-1} + \frac{1}{2}(b_k - b_{k-r-1}) \right] \\ &\quad - P_k [(R_k - R_{k-1})x_{k-1} + R_{k-1}\alpha_{k-1} - R_k\alpha_k], \end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

where  $P_0 = (\sum_{i=-r}^0 A_i + R_0)^{-1}$  and  $x_0 = -\frac{1}{2}P_0 (\sum_{i=-r}^0 b_i - 2R_0\alpha_0)$ .

The theoretical properties and computational complexity of Algorithms 1 and 2 are identical, but their numerical properties are different, which will be discussed in Section 7.

If, for all  $i \in \{-r, \dots, 0\}$ ,  $A_i = 0$  and  $b_i = 0$ , then  $x_0 = \alpha_0$  and  $P_0 = R_0^{-1}$ . Furthermore, if the regularization weighting  $R_k$  is constant, that is, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $R_k = R_0 > 0$ , then (11) implies that  $\phi_k = 0$  and (17) simplifies to  $L_k = P_{k-1}$ , and thus, computation of  $L_k$  is not required.

#### 4. COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY

First, consider Algorithm 1. The computational complexity of the matrix products and inverse in (12) is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2m_k)$  and  $\mathcal{O}(m_k^3)$ , respectively, where  $m_k = \text{rank}(R_k - R_{k-1}) \leq n$ . Hence, (12) is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2m_k)$ . In particular, if, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $m_k = 1$ , then the inverse in (12) is a scalar inverse, and (12) is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ .

The matrix products and inverse in (14) are  $\mathcal{O}(n^2n_k)$  and  $\mathcal{O}(n_k^3)$ , respectively, where  $n_k = \text{rank} A_k \leq n$ . Hence, (14) is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2n_k)$ . Similarly, (13) is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2n_{k-r-1})$ . In particular, if, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $n_k = 1$ , then the inverses in (13) and (14) are scalar inverses, and (13) and (14) are  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ .

Finally, note that (15) is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ . Therefore, if, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $\text{rank}(R_k - R_{k-1}) = 1$  and  $\text{rank} A_k = 1$ , then the computational complexity of Algorithm 1 is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ .

Now, consider Algorithm 2. Because (17), (18), and (19) are identical to (12), (13), and (14), respectively, and (20) is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ , it follows that the computational complexity of Algorithm 2 is identical to the computational complexity of Algorithm 1.

## 5. CONVERGENCE ANALYSIS OF SW-VR-RLS

*Definition 1* ([23])

Let  $x_{\text{eq}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and consider the nonlinear time-varying system

$$x_{k+1} = f(x_k, k), \quad (21)$$

where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \times \{0, 1, 2, \dots\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a continuous function such that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $f(x_{\text{eq}}, k) = x_{\text{eq}}$ . The equilibrium solution  $x_k \equiv x_{\text{eq}}$  of (21) is *Lyapunov stable* if, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $k_0 \geq 0$ , there exists  $\delta(\varepsilon, k_0) > 0$  such that  $\|x_{k_0} - x_{\text{eq}}\| < \delta$  implies that, for all  $k \geq k_0$ ,  $\|x_k - x_{\text{eq}}\| < \varepsilon$ . The equilibrium solution  $x_k \equiv x_{\text{eq}}$  of (21) is *uniformly Lyapunov stable* if, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta = \delta(\varepsilon) > 0$  such that, for all  $k_0 \geq 0$ ,  $\|x_{k_0} - x_{\text{eq}}\| < \delta$  implies that, for all  $k \geq k_0$ ,  $\|x_k - x_{\text{eq}}\| < \varepsilon$ . The equilibrium solution  $x_k \equiv x_{\text{eq}}$  of (21) is *globally asymptotically stable* if it is Lyapunov stable and, for all  $k_0 \geq 0$  and  $x_{k_0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = x_{\text{eq}}$ .

The following result provides boundedness properties of the SW-VR-RLS algorithm. The proof is in Appendix A. This result applies to both SW-VR-RLS implementations, specifically, Algorithms 1 and 2.

*Theorem 1*

For all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $T_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be positive definite, and assume that there exist  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in (0, \infty)$  such that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,

$$\varepsilon_1 I_n \leq T_{k+1} \leq T_k \leq \varepsilon_2 I_n. \quad (22)$$

Furthermore, for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $\xi_k \in \mathbb{R}$ ; assume that  $0 < \inf_{k \geq 0} \xi_k \leq \sup_{k \geq 0} \xi_k < \infty$ ; and define  $R_k \triangleq \xi_k T_k$ . Then, the following statements hold:

- (i)  $\{L_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $\{Q_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ , and  $\{P_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  are bounded.
- (ii) Assume that  $\{\alpha_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  and  $\{b_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  are bounded. Then,  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is bounded.

For all  $k \geq 0$ , define  $\Phi_k \triangleq [\psi_k \ \dots \ \psi_{k-r}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q_k}$ , where  $q_k \triangleq \sum_{i=0}^r n_{k-i}$ , so that  $\sum_{i=k-r}^k A_i = \Phi_k \Phi_k^T$ . Furthermore, using the matrix inversion lemma, it follows from (3) that

$$P_k = R_k^{-1} - R_k^{-1} \Phi_k (I_{q_k} + \Phi_k^T R_k^{-1} \Phi_k)^{-1} \Phi_k^T R_k^{-1}. \quad (23)$$

Next, let  $\nu$  be a positive integer, for all  $k \geq \nu$ , let  $\alpha_k = x_{k-\nu}$ , for all  $k > \nu - 1$ , define  $\chi_k \triangleq [x_k^T \ x_{k-1}^T \ \dots \ x_{k-\nu+1}^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n\nu}$ , and, for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \nu\}$ , let  $\chi_{k,i} \triangleq x_{k-i+1}$ . Then, it follows from (15) that, for all  $k > \nu - 2$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \chi_{k+1,1} \\ \chi_{k+1,2} \\ \vdots \\ \chi_{k+1,\nu} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -P_{k+1} \left( \sum_{i=k+1-r}^{k+1} \frac{1}{2} b_i - R_{k+1} \chi_{k,\nu} \right) \\ \chi_{k,1} \\ \vdots \\ \chi_{k,\nu-1} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (24)$$

The following result provides stability and convergence properties of the SW-VR-RLS algorithm. The proof is in the Appendix. This result applies to both SW-VR-RLS implementations.

*Theorem 2*

For all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $T_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be positive definite, and assume that there exist  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in (0, \infty)$  such that, for all  $k \geq 0$ , (22) holds. Furthermore, for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $\xi_k \in \mathbb{R}$ ; assume that  $0 < \inf_{k \geq 0} \xi_k \leq \sup_{k \geq 0} \xi_k < \infty$ ; and define  $R_k \triangleq \xi_k T_k$ . Let  $\nu$  be a positive integer; let  $\eta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ; for all  $0 \leq k \leq \nu - 1$ , define  $\alpha_k \triangleq \eta$ ; and, for all  $k \geq \nu$ , define  $\alpha_k \triangleq x_{k-\nu}$ , where  $x_{k-\nu}$  satisfies (4).

Let  $P_0 = \left(\sum_{i=-r}^0 A_i + R_0\right)^{-1}$  and  $x_0 = -\frac{1}{2}P_0 \left(\sum_{i=-r}^0 b_i - 2R_0\eta\right)$ , assume that there exists a unique  $x_* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,

$$A_k x_* + \frac{1}{2}b_k = 0, \tag{25}$$

and define  $\chi_* \triangleq [x_*^T \ x_*^T \ \dots \ x_*^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{nv}$ . Then, the following statements hold:

- (i)  $\chi_k \equiv \chi_*$  is an equilibrium solution of (24).
- (ii) The equilibrium solution  $\chi_k \equiv \chi_*$  of (24) is uniformly Lyapunov stable, and, for all  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded.
- (iii)  $\sum_{j=v}^\infty (x_{j-v} - x_*)^T \Phi_j \left[\xi_j I_{q_j} + \Phi_j^T T_j^{-1} \Phi_j\right]^{-1} \Phi_j^T (x_{j-v} - x_*)$  and  $\sum_{j=v}^\infty \|x_j - x_{j-v}\|^2$  exist.
- (iv) Assume that  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded. Then,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_k^T (x_{k-v} - x_*) = 0$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (A_k x_k + \frac{1}{2}b_k) = 0$ .
- (v) Assume that  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded, and assume that there exists  $c > 0$  and a non-negative integer  $l$  such that, for all  $k \geq vl - r$ ,  $cI_n \leq \sum_{i=0}^l A_{k-vi}$ . Then, for all  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = x_*$ , and  $\chi_k \equiv \chi_*$  is globally asymptotically stable.

### 6. SIMULATIONS

In this section, we study the effect of  $R_k$  and  $r$  on SW-VR-RLS and compare SW-VR-RLS with the proportionate affine projection algorithm (PAPA) [24] and the proportionate normalized least mean squares (PNLMS) algorithm [25] for systems, where  $x_*$  changes abruptly.

Let  $\ell$  be the number of data points, and, for any sequence  $\{p_k\}_{k=1}^\ell$ , define the root-mean-square value

$$\sigma_p \triangleq \sqrt{\frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{k=1}^\ell p_k^2}.$$

Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and, for  $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ , let  $h_i \in \mathbb{R}$ . Define  $x_* \triangleq [h_0 \ h_1 \ \dots \ h_{n-1}]^T$ . For all  $k \geq 1$ , let  $u_k \in \mathbb{R}$ , and, for all  $-r-n+1 \leq k \leq 0$ , let  $u_k = 0$  and  $y_k = 0$ . Furthermore, for all  $k \geq 1$ , let  $y_k$  satisfy the finite impulse response

$$y_k = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} h_i u_{k-i}. \tag{26}$$

Next, for all  $k \geq -r-n+1$ , define the noisy output  $\bar{y}_k \triangleq y_k + w_k$ , where, for all  $-r-n+1 \leq k \leq 0$ ,  $w_k = 0$ , and, for all  $k \geq 1$ ,  $w_k \in \mathbb{R}$  is sampled from a white noise process with a zero-mean Gaussian distribution with variance  $\sigma_w^2$ . Define the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)  $\text{SNR} \triangleq \sigma_y / \sigma_w$ .

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , for all  $k \geq -r$ , define  $\psi_k \triangleq [u_k \ \dots \ u_{k-n+1}]^T$ , and, for all  $k \geq 0$ , define the cost function

$$\mathcal{J}_k(x) \triangleq \sum_{i=k-r}^k (\bar{y}_k - \psi_k^T x)^T (\bar{y}_k - \psi_k^T x) + (x - \alpha_k)^T R_k (x - \alpha_k). \tag{27}$$

For all  $k \geq -r$ , define  $A_k \triangleq \psi_k \psi_k^T$  and  $b_k \triangleq -2\bar{y}_k \psi_k$ . It follows from (27) that

$$\mathcal{J}_k(x) = \sum_{i=k-r}^k (x^T A_k x + b_k x_k) + (x - \alpha_k)^T R_k (x - \alpha_k) + \sum_{i=k-r}^k \bar{y}_k^T \bar{y}_k. \tag{28}$$

Then, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $\mathcal{J}_k(x) = J_k(x) + \sum_{i=k-r}^k \bar{y}_i^T \bar{y}_i$ , and thus, the minimizer  $x_k$  of (28) is given by the minimizer (2) of the SW-VR-RLS cost function (1).

Next, it follows from (26) that for all  $k \geq 1$ ,  $y_k = \phi^T x_*$ , where  $x_* \triangleq [h_0 \ h_1 \ \dots \ h_{n-1}]^T$  is a vector of the unknown impulse response coefficients. For all examples,  $n = 15$ , and

$$x_* = \begin{cases} z_1, & \text{if } 0 \leq k \leq 999, \\ z_2, & \text{if } k \geq 1000, \end{cases} \tag{29}$$

where  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  are randomly selected. In all examples, they are

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 &\triangleq [-1.0667 \ 0.9337 \ 0.3503 \ -0.0290 \ 0.1825 \ -1.5651 \ -0.0845 \ 1.6039 \\ &\quad 0.0983 \ 0.0414 \ -0.7342 \ -0.0308 \ 0.2323 \ 0.4264 \ -0.3728]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{15}, \\ z_2 &\triangleq [-0.0835 \ 0.8205 \ -1.3594 \ 1.4417 \ 0.8726 \ 0.4442 \ -0.2222 \ -0.8215 \\ &\quad 0.5131 \ -0.6638 \ 0.1265 \ -0.0155 \ -0.1581 \ 0.6957 \ -0.8379]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{15}. \end{aligned}$$

For all examples, we use Algorithm 1, where  $\alpha_0 = x_0$ , and for all  $k \geq 1$ ,  $\alpha_k = x_{k-1}$ . Define the performance  $\varepsilon_k \triangleq 20 \log_{10} (\|x_* - x_k\|/\|x_*\|)$ . We compute the ensemble average of  $\varepsilon_k$  based on 100 simulations with independent realizations of  $u_k$  and  $w_k$ .

### 6.1. Effect of $R_k$

First, we examine the effect of  $R_k$  on the performance of SW-VR-RLS, where  $R_k \equiv R$  is constant and the coefficients of (26) change abruptly at  $k = 1000$ . Let  $r = 60$ , for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $u_k$  be sampled from a white noise process with a zero-mean Gaussian distribution with variance 10, and let  $x_*$  be given by (29).

We test SW-VR-RLS for three values of  $R_k$  and three values of SNR. Specifically,  $R = 1000I_n$ ,  $R = 10000I_n$ , and  $R = 30000I_n$ . Figure 1 shows that, for this example, not only a smaller value of  $R$  yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  but also a larger asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$ . Furthermore, for each  $R$ , a larger value of SNR yields a smaller asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$ .

To understand why a smaller value of  $R$  yields a larger asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$  in the case of noisy data, first, note that a smaller  $R$  makes the regularization term  $(x_k - x_{k-1})^T R(x_k - x_{k-1})$  of (1) smaller. Because the regularization term has the effect of opposing movement of the estimate  $x_k$  away from  $x_{k-1}$ , smaller  $R$  makes  $x_k$  more sensitive to noise. Furthermore, as  $k$  increases,  $\|x_k - x_{k-1}\|$  tends to decrease to its asymptotic mean value, and thus, the regularization term

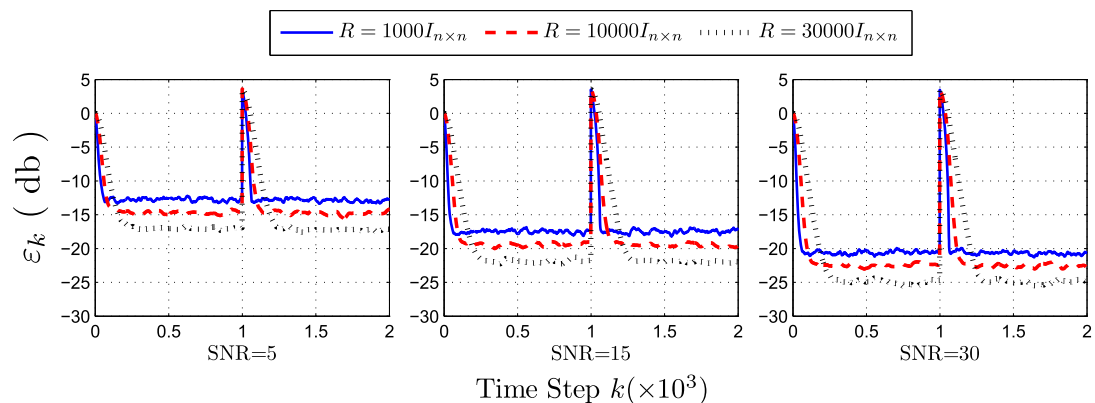


Figure 1. Effect of  $R_k$  on convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value, where  $R_k \equiv R$  is a constant. For this example, a smaller value of  $R$  yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value but also a larger asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$ . Furthermore, for each value of  $R$ , a larger value of SNR yields a smaller asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$ .



$(x_k - x_{k-1})^T R(x_k - x_{k-1})$  decreases. Thus, a larger value of  $R$  means that the regularization term contributes more asymptotically to the cost function (1). Thus, more regularization (i.e., larger  $R$ ) can make the estimate  $x_k$  asymptotically less sensitive to noise in  $y_k$ , which in turn can yield smaller asymptotic mean values of  $\varepsilon_k$ .

Next, we consider a time-varying  $R_k$ . First, define the residual  $v_k \triangleq \|\bar{y}_k - \psi_k^T x_k\|$  and the filtered residual  $\bar{v}_k = \gamma \bar{v}_{k-1} + (1 - \gamma)v_k$ , where  $\gamma \in (0, 1)$  is a smoothing factor. Furthermore, let

$$R_k = \begin{cases} R_{\min} I_n, & \bar{v}_k \leq \rho, \\ R_{\max} I_n, & \bar{v}_k > \rho. \end{cases} \tag{30}$$

For this example,  $\gamma = 0.05$ ,  $R_{\min} = 10000$ ,  $R_{\max} = 50000$ ,  $\rho = 2.5$ , and  $\text{SNR} = 20$ . Note that we allow only rank 1 modifications in  $R_k$  so that the computational complexity of SW-VR-RLS is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ . Therefore, in order to modify  $R_k$  from  $R_{\min} I_n$  to  $R_{\max} I_n$ , we modify the first diagonal entry of  $R_k$  at the current time step and change the next diagonal entry at the next time step and so on. Figure 2 shows that (30) yields a smaller asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$  than  $R_k \equiv 10000 I_n$  and faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than  $R_k \equiv 50000 I_n$ .

6.2. Effect of window size

For all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $u_k$  be sampled from a zero-mean Gaussian white noise process with variance 10, let  $\text{SNR} = 20$ , let  $x_*$  be given by (29), and, for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $R_k = 1000 I_n$ . We test SW-VR-

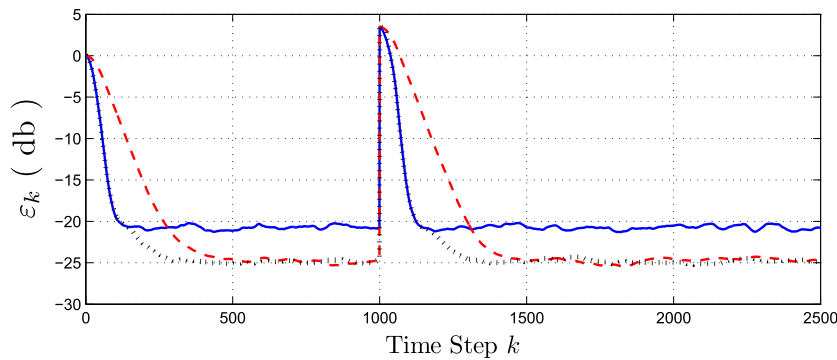


Figure 2. Effect of  $R_k$  on convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value when  $R_k$  is time-varying. The solid line, dashed line, and dotted line indicate SW-VR-RLS with  $R_k \equiv 10000 I_n$ ,  $R_k \equiv 50000 I_n$ , and  $R_k$  given by (30), respectively. For this example,  $R_k$  given by (30) yields a smaller asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$  than  $R_k \equiv 10000 I_n$  and yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than  $R_k \equiv 50000 I_n$ .

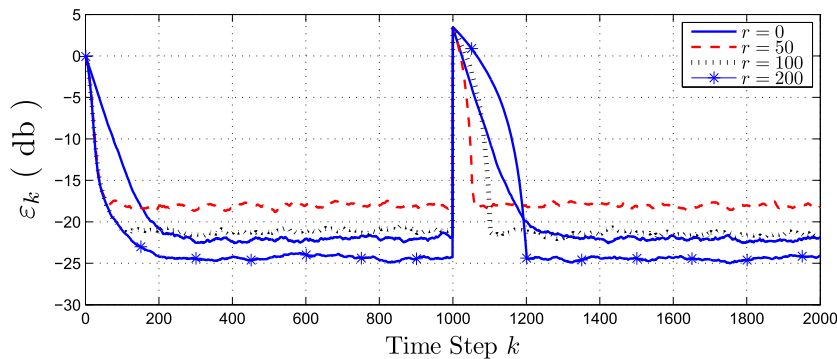


Figure 3. Effect of  $r$  on convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value. This plot shows that, as  $r$  is increased from 0, the asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$  and the speed of convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value first increase and then decrease.

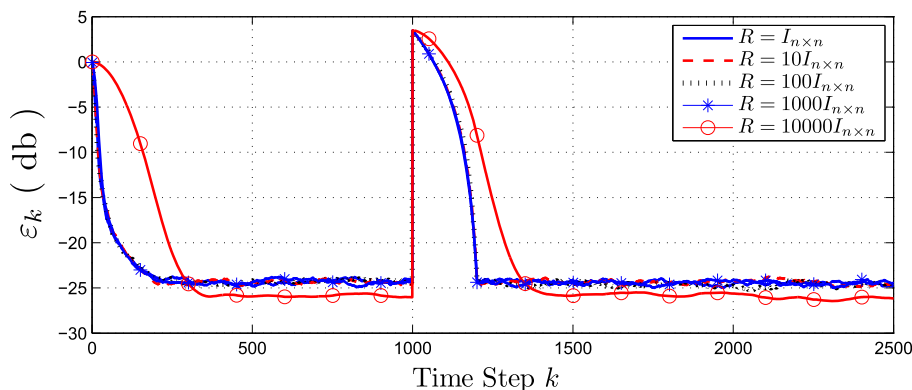


Figure 4. Effect of constant  $R$  on convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value when  $r = 200$ . This plot shows that decreasing the value of  $R$  from  $1000I_n$  to  $I_n$  does not increase either the speed of convergence or the asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$ .

RLS with  $r = 0$ ,  $r = 50$ ,  $r = 100$ , and  $r = 200$ . Figure 3 shows that, as  $r$  is increased from 0, the asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$  and the speed of convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value initially increase and then decrease.

To gain further insight into how to choose  $r$ , we fix  $r = 200$  and test SW-VR-RLS when  $R_k \equiv R$  is constant. We test five different values of  $R$ , specifically,  $R = I_n$ ,  $R = 10I_n$ ,  $R = 100I_n$ ,  $R = 1000I_n$ , and  $R = 10000I_n$ . For this simulation, Figure 4 shows that decreasing the value of  $R$  from  $1000I_n$  to  $I_n$  does not increase the speed of convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value. This suggests that, as  $R$  is decreased beyond a certain value, it no longer affects the speed of convergence or asymptotic mean value of  $\varepsilon_k$ , and  $r$  must be decreased in order to increase the speed of convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$ .

### 6.3. Comparison with PAPA and PNLMS

In this section, we compare SW-VR-RLS with PAPA [24] and PNLMS [25], which are widely used and hence chosen for comparison. PAPA and PNLMS include regularization terms that weight the difference between the current estimate  $x_k$  and previous estimate  $x_{k-1}$ . This aspect of PAPA and PNLMS is similar to SW-VR-RLS, where  $\alpha_k = x_{k-1}$ .

For all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $u_k$  be sampled from a white noise process with a zero-mean Gaussian distribution with variance 10, let  $x_*$  be given by (29), and let SNR = 20. For SW-VR-RLS, we use  $r = 60$  and  $R_k$  specified by (30) with  $R_{\min} = 6000$ ,  $R_{\max} = 25\,000$ ,  $\rho = 2.5$ , and  $\gamma = 0.1$ . For PNLMS [25], we set  $\delta(\text{PNLMS}) = 0.01$ ,  $\rho(\text{PNLMS}) = 15/(n+1)$ ,  $\mu(\text{PNLMS}) = 0.2$ ; and for the PAPA [24], we set  $\delta_\rho(\text{PAPA}) = 0.01$ ,  $\rho(\text{PAPA}) = 15/n$ ,  $\mu(\text{PAPA}) = 0.2$ , and  $\delta(\text{PAPA}) = 100/n$ . Note that for these parameters, all three algorithms have approximately the same mean steady-state error. Figure 5 shows that, for  $k \leq 999$ , SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA. Furthermore, at  $k = 1000$ ,  $x_* \neq z_1$ ; and SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its new asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA.

Next, we consider the case where  $u_k$  is colored. Because convergence of SW-VR-RLS, PAPA, and PNLMS is slower in the presence of colored inputs as compared with white inputs, we consider

$$x_* = \begin{cases} z_1, & \text{if } 0 \leq k \leq 3999, \\ z_2, & \text{if } k \geq 4000. \end{cases}$$

Let SNR = 20,  $\bar{u}_k$  be sampled from a white noise process with a zero-mean Gaussian distribution with variance 10, and let

$$u_k = 0.9u_{k-1} + \bar{u}_k.$$

For SW-VR-RLS, we use  $r = 800$  and  $R_k$  specified by (30) with  $R_{\min} = 5 \times 10^4$ ,  $R_{\max} = 35 \times 10^4$ ,  $\rho = 3.5$ , and  $\gamma = 0.01$ . For PNLMS [25], we set  $\delta(\text{PNLMS}) = 0.05$ ,  $\rho(\text{PNLMS}) =$

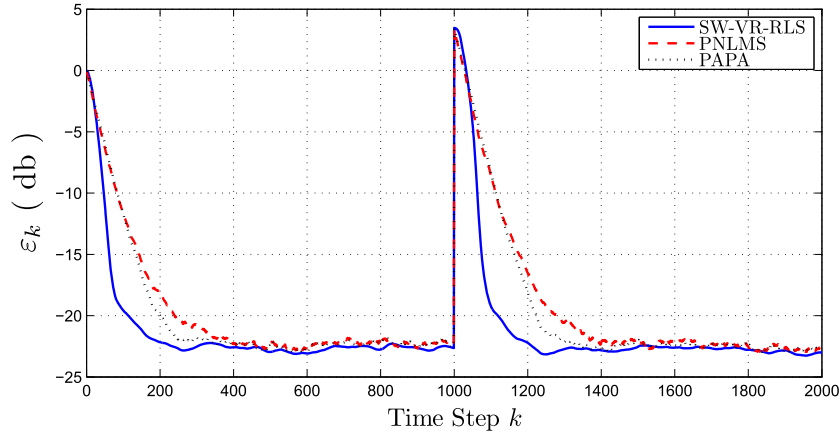


Figure 5. This plot compares SW-VR-RLS with PAPA and PNLMS when the input signal is white. For  $k \leq 1000$ , SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA. Furthermore, at  $k = 1000$ ,  $x_* \neq z_1$ ; and SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its new asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA.

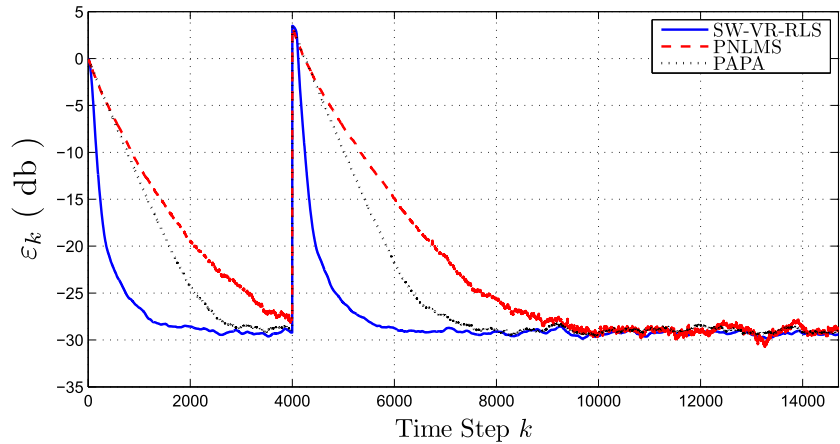


Figure 6. This plot compares SW-VR-RLS with PAPA and PNLMS when the input signal  $u_k$  is colored. For  $k \leq 4000$ , SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA. Furthermore, at  $k = 4000$ ,  $x_* \neq z_1$ ; and SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA.

$15/(n + 1)$ , and  $\mu(\text{PNLMS}) = 0.085$ ; and, for PAPA [24], we set  $\delta_\rho(\text{PAPA}) = 0.01$ ,  $\rho(\text{PAPA}) = 15/n$ ,  $\mu(\text{PAPA}) = 0.02$ , and  $\delta(\text{PAPA}) = 5/n$ . Note that we have chosen these parameters such that all three algorithms have approximately the steady-state mean error. Figure 6 shows that, for this example, and for  $k \leq 3999$ , SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA. Furthermore, at  $k = 4000$ ,  $x_* \neq z_1$ ; and SW-VR-RLS yields faster convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic mean value than PNLMS and PAPA.

### 7. NUMERICAL STABILITY

In this section, we investigate the numerical stability of SW-VR-RLS to account for the effects of round-off and quantization errors in  $x_k$  and  $P_k$ . Throughout this section, we assume that, for all  $0 \leq k \leq \nu - 1$ ,  $\alpha_k \triangleq x_0$ , and, for all  $k \geq \nu$ ,  $\alpha_k \triangleq x_{k-\nu}$ , where  $\nu$  is a positive integer.

7.1. Numerical errors in  $x_k$

To examine the numerical stability of Algorithms 1 and 2, we perturb  $x_{k_0}$  at step  $k_0$  by the amount  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and analyze the propagation of this error, assuming that all subsequent calculations are performed with infinite-precision arithmetic.

We first analyze the numerical stability of Algorithm 1, that is, we analyze the propagation of a perturbation in  $x_{k_0}$  at step  $k_0$  assuming that, for all  $k > k_0$ ,  $x_k$  is updated using (15). For all  $k > k_0$ , let  $\bar{x}_k$  denote the SW-VR-RLS minimizer given by Algorithm 1, where the initial condition is  $\bar{x}_{k_0} \triangleq x_{k_0} + \gamma$ , where  $x_{k_0}$  is the SW-VR-RLS minimizer given by Algorithm 1 at step  $k_0$ . Thus, it follows from (15) that, for all  $k \geq k_0$ ,  $\bar{x}_k$  satisfies

$$\bar{x}_k = -\frac{1}{2}P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k b_i - 2R_k \bar{\alpha}_k \right), \tag{31}$$

where, for all  $k_0 \leq k \leq k_0 + \nu - 1$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_k \triangleq \alpha_k$  and, for all  $k \geq k_0 + \nu$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_k \triangleq \bar{x}_{k-\nu}$ . For all  $k \geq k_0$ , define  $\delta_k \triangleq \bar{x}_k - x_k$  and note that  $\delta_{k_0} = \gamma$ . It follows from (31) and (15) that, for all  $k > k_0$ ,

$$\delta_k = P_k R_k (\bar{\alpha}_k - \alpha_k) = P_k R_k \delta_{k-\nu}, \tag{32}$$

where, for all  $k_0 - \nu + 1 \leq k \leq k_0 - 1$ , we define  $\delta_k \triangleq 0$ . For all  $k > k_0 + \nu - 1$ , define  $\Delta_k \triangleq [\delta_k^T \ \delta_{k-1}^T \ \dots \ \delta_{k-\nu+1}^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n\nu}$  and, for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \nu\}$ , let  $\Delta_{k,i} \triangleq \delta_{k-i+1}$ . Then, it follows from (32) that, for all  $k > k_0 + \nu - 2$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{k+1,1} \\ \Delta_{k+1,2} \\ \vdots \\ \Delta_{k+1,\nu} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} P_{k+1} R_{k+1} \Delta_{k,\nu} \\ \Delta_{k,1} \\ \vdots \\ \Delta_{k,\nu-1} \end{bmatrix}. \tag{33}$$

Note that  $\Delta_k \equiv 0$  is an equilibrium solution of (33). The following result shows that, under the assumptions of Theorem 1, the equilibrium solution  $\Delta_k \equiv 0$  of (33) is globally asymptotically stable. The proof is in the Appendix.

*Theorem 3*

Consider the error systems (17), (18), (19), and (32). For all  $k \geq k_0$ , let  $T_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be positive definite, and assume that there exist  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in (0, \infty)$  such that, for all  $k \geq k_0$ , (22) holds. Furthermore, for all  $k \geq k_0$ , let  $\xi_k \in \mathbb{R}$ ; assume that  $0 < \inf_{k \geq k_0} \xi_k \leq \sup_{k \geq k_0} \xi_k < \infty$ ; and define  $R_k \triangleq \xi_k T_k$ . Then, the following statements hold:

- (i)  $\{L_k\}_{k=k_0+1}^\infty, \{Q_k\}_{k=k_0+1}^\infty$ , and  $\{P_k\}_{k=k_0}^\infty$  are bounded.
- (ii) The equilibrium solution  $\Delta_k \equiv 0$  of (33) is uniformly Lyapunov stable, and, for all  $\delta_{k_0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\{\delta_k\}_{k=k_0}^\infty$  is bounded.
- (iii) Assume that  $\{A_k\}_{k=k_0}^\infty$  is bounded, and assume that there exists  $c > 0$  and a non-negative integer  $l$  such that, for all  $k \geq k_0 + \nu l - r$ ,  $cI_n \leq \sum_{i=0}^l A_{k-\nu i}$ . Then, for all  $\delta_{k_0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \delta_k = 0$ , and  $\Delta_k \equiv 0$  is globally asymptotically stable.

We now examine the numerical stability of Algorithm 2, that is, we analyze the propagation of a perturbation in  $x_{k_0}$  at step  $k_0$  assuming that, for all  $k > k_0$ ,  $x_k$  is updated using (20). For all  $k > k_0$ , let  $\bar{x}_k$  denote the SW-VR-RLS minimizer given by Algorithm 2, where the initial condition is  $\bar{x}_{k_0} \triangleq x_{k_0} + \gamma$ , where  $x_{k_0}$  is the SW-VR-RLS minimizer given by Algorithm 2 at step  $k_0$ . Thus, it follows from (20) that, for all  $k \geq k_0$ ,  $\bar{x}_k$  satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x}_k = & [I_n - P_k(A_k - A_{k-r-1} + R_k - R_{k-1})] \bar{x}_{k-1} - \frac{1}{2}P_k(b_k - b_{k-r-1}) \\ & + P_k R_k \bar{\alpha}_k - P_k R_{k-1} \bar{\alpha}_{k-1}, \end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

where, for all  $k_0 \leq k \leq k_0 + \nu - 1$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_k \triangleq \alpha_k$ , and, for all  $k \geq k_0 + \nu$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_k \triangleq \bar{x}_{k-\nu}$ . For all  $k \geq k_0$ , define  $\delta_k \triangleq \bar{x}_k - x_k$  and note that  $\delta_{k_0} = \gamma$ . Subtracting (20) from (34), and using (9), it follows that, for all  $k > k_0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_k &= [I_n - P_k(A_k - A_{k-r-1} + R_k - R_{k-1})](\bar{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1}) \\ &\quad + P_k R_k (\bar{\alpha}_k - \alpha_k) - P_k R_{k-1} (\bar{\alpha}_{k-1} - \alpha_{k-1}) \\ &= (I_n - P_k (P_k^{-1} - P_{k-1}^{-1})) (\bar{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1}) + P_k R_k (\bar{\alpha}_k - \alpha_k) - P_k R_{k-1} (\bar{\alpha}_{k-1} - \alpha_{k-1}) \\ &= P_k P_{k-1}^{-1} \delta_{k-1} + P_k R_k \delta_{k-\nu} - P_k R_{k-1} \delta_{k-\nu-1}, \end{aligned} \tag{35}$$

where, for all  $k_0 - \nu \leq k \leq k_0 - 1$ , we define  $\delta_k \triangleq 0$ . Note that the error dynamics (35) for Algorithm 2 are different from the error dynamics (32) for Algorithm 1. We show numerically that there exists  $\delta_{k_0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\delta_k$  for Algorithm 2 given by (35) does not decay to zero. In contrast, Theorem 3 implies that  $\delta_k$  for Algorithm 1 given by (32) does decay to zero.

We now numerically test the stability of the single error propagation dynamics for  $x_k$  given by (35) and (32). Let  $n = 10$ ,  $r = 5$ , and  $\nu = 1$ ; and, for all  $k \geq -r$ , let the entries of  $\psi_k$  be generated from a zero-mean Gaussian distribution with unit variance. Furthermore, for all  $k \geq -r$ , let  $A_k = \psi_k \psi_k^T$ , and, for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $R_k = I_n$ . Moreover, let  $\delta_{-1} = 0$ , and let  $\delta_0$  be generated from a zero-mean Gaussian distribution with unit variance. Finally, for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $P_k$  be given by (3). Figure 7 shows  $\delta_k$  for (35) and (32) and shows that, for this example,  $\delta_k$  given by (35) does not decay to zero, whereas  $\delta_k$  given by (32) decays to zero.

Next, we test Algorithms 1 and 2 using the same setup as in Section 6.1 but with no noise,  $x_* = z_1$ , and a perturbation in  $x_k$  at step  $k = 500$ . Figure 8 shows  $\varepsilon_k$  for Algorithms 1 and 2 with perturbation (dashed line) and without perturbation (solid line) in  $x_k$  and shows that, after  $k = 500$ , for Algorithm 1 with perturbation,  $\varepsilon_k$  converges to the unperturbed value of  $\varepsilon_k$ , but for Algorithm 2 with perturbation,  $\varepsilon_k$  does not converge the unperturbed value of  $\varepsilon_k$ .

Since the  $x_k$  update for Algorithm 2 is derived from the  $x_k$  update for Algorithm 1, Figure 8 suggests that the derivation of the  $x_k$  update for Algorithm 2 introduces the equivalent of a pole on the unit circle at 1 of a linear time-invariant discrete-time system, due to which a perturbation in  $x_k$  does not decay. To illustrate this, let  $\kappa \in \mathbb{R}$ , for all  $k \geq 0$ , let  $a_k \in \mathbb{R}$  be sampled from a white noise process with a zero-mean Gaussian distribution and variance 0.0025, let  $b_k = a_k + 0.5 \sin(0.01k)$ , and, for all  $k \geq 0$ , define the asymptotically stable linear system

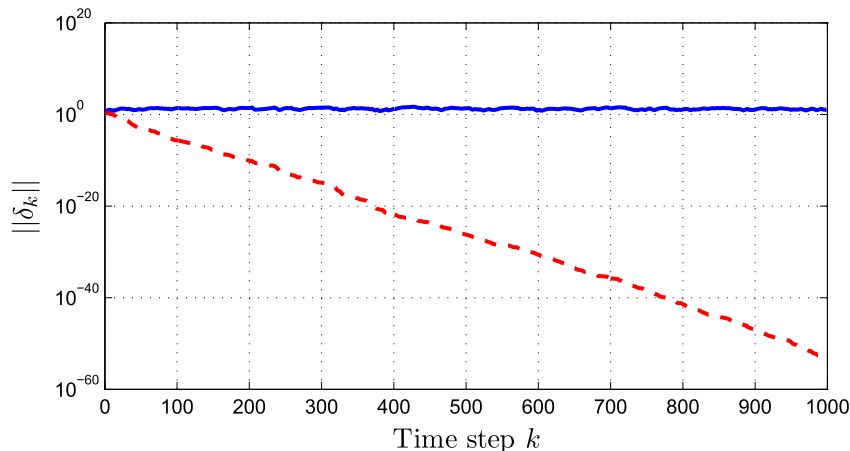


Figure 7. This plot shows the solution  $\delta_k$  of the error-propagation systems for  $x_k$  given by (35) and (32). The solid line indicates the solution to (35), whereas the dashed line indicates the solution to (32). This plot shows that  $\delta_k$  given by (35) does not decay to zero, whereas  $\delta_k$  given by (32) decays to zero.

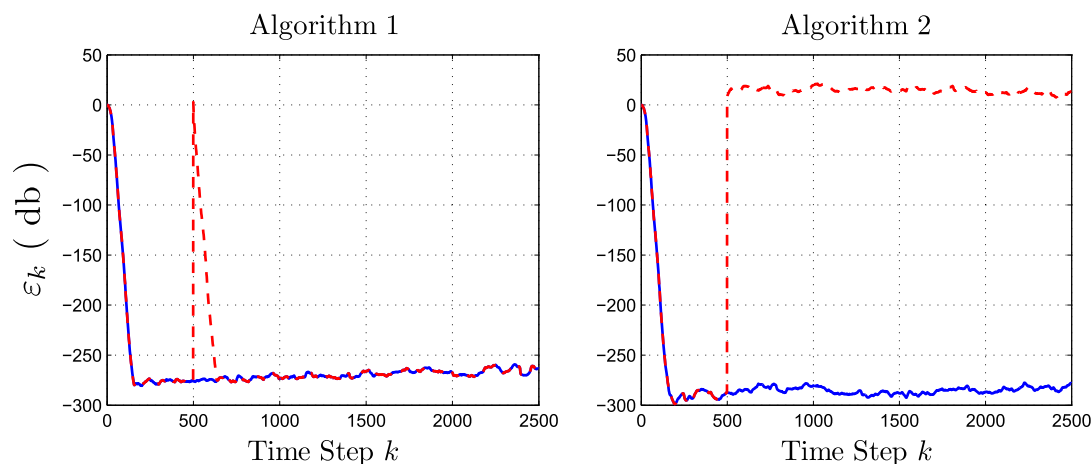


Figure 8. This plot shows  $\varepsilon_k$  for Algorithms 1 and 2 with perturbation (dashed line) and without perturbation (solid line) in  $x_k$  and shows that, after  $k = 500$ , for Algorithm 1 with perturbation,  $\varepsilon_k$  converges to the unperturbed value of  $\varepsilon_k$ , but for Algorithm 2 with perturbation,  $\varepsilon_k$  does not converge the unperturbed value of  $\varepsilon_k$ .

$$x_{k+1} = 0.5x_k + b_{k+1} + b_k, \tag{36}$$

with the initial condition  $x_0 = \kappa$ . It follows from (36) that  $x_k = 0.5x_{k-1} + b_k + b_{k-1}$ , and thus,

$$b_k = x_k - 0.5x_{k-1} - b_{k-1}. \tag{37}$$

Using (37) in (36) yields, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,

$$x_{k+2} = 1.5x_{k+1} - 0.5x_k + b_{k+2} - b_k, \tag{38}$$

with the initial conditions  $x_0 = \kappa$  and  $x_1 = 0.5\kappa + b_1 + b_0$ . Note that (38) has a pole at 1. Note that using (37) in (36) is similar to using (9) and (16) in (15) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x_k &= -\frac{1}{2}P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r-1}^{k-1} b_i + b_k - b_{k-r-1} - 2R_k\alpha_k \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2}P_k \left( -2P_{k-1}^{-1}x_{k-1} + 2R_{k-1}\alpha_{k-1} + b_k - b_{k-r-1} - 2R_k\alpha_k \right), \end{aligned}$$

which is one of the steps in deriving Algorithm 2 from Algorithm 1.

Figure 9 shows  $x_k$  given by (36) and (38) with a perturbation at step  $k = 200$  (dashed line) and without perturbation (solid line). After  $k = 200$ , for (36) with perturbation,  $x_k$  converges to the unperturbed value of  $x_k$ , but for (38) with perturbation,  $x_k$  does not converge the unperturbed value of  $x_k$ .

### 7.2. Numerical errors in $P_k$

We now consider the effect of round-off and quantization errors in  $P_k$ . As in the case of  $x_k$ , we perturb  $P_{k_0}$  at step  $k_0$ , and analyze the propagation of this error, assuming that all subsequent calculations are performed with infinite-precision arithmetic. Let  $\Gamma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . For all  $k > k_0$ , let  $\bar{P}_k$  be given by Algorithm 1, where the initial conditions are  $\bar{P}_{k_0} = P_{k_0} + \Gamma$ ,  $\bar{Q}_{k_0} = Q_{k_0}$ , and  $\bar{L}_{k_0} = L_{k_0}$ , where  $P_{k_0}$ ,  $Q_{k_0}$ , and  $L_{k_0}$  are given by Algorithm 1 at step  $k_0$ . Thus, it follows that, for all  $k \geq k_0$ ,  $\bar{P}_k$ ,  $\bar{Q}_k$ , and  $\bar{L}_k$  satisfy

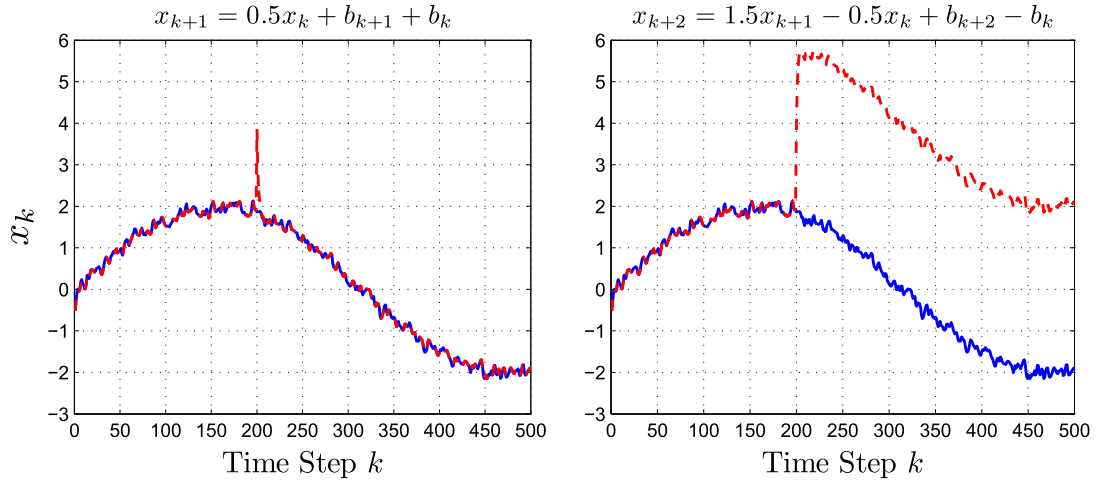


Figure 9. This plot shows  $x_k$  given by (36) and (38) with perturbation at step  $k = 200$  (dashed line) and without perturbation (solid line). After  $k = 200$ , for (36) with perturbation,  $x_k$  converges to the unperturbed value of  $x_k$ , but for (38) with perturbation,  $x_k$  does not converge the unperturbed value of  $x_k$ .

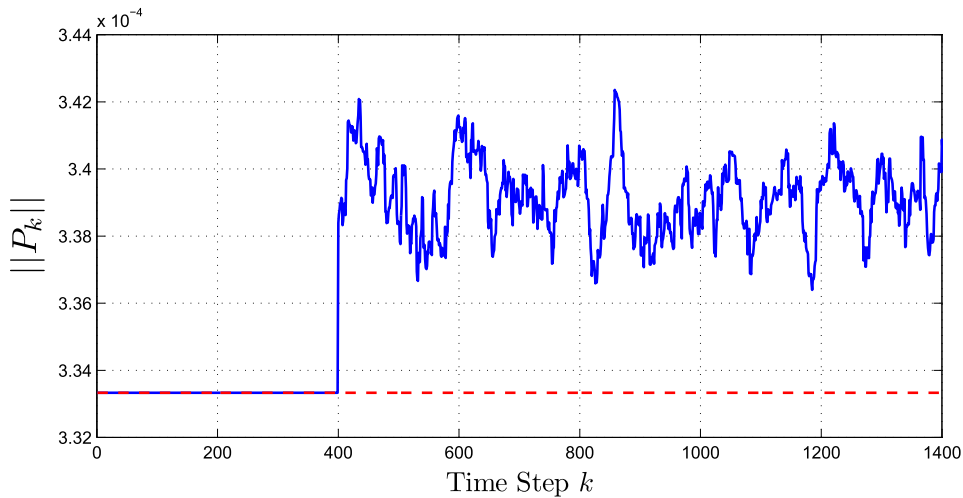


Figure 10. This figure shows  $\|P_k\|$  for SW-VR-RLS with  $P_k$  perturbed at  $k = 400$  (solid line) and SW-VR-RLS with unperturbed  $P_k$  (dashed line). This figure shows that, after  $P_k$  is perturbed at  $k = 400$ , the error between SW-VR-RLS with perturbed  $P_k$  and SW-VR-RLS with unperturbed  $P_k$  does not decay.

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{L}_k &= \bar{P}_{k-1} - \bar{P}_{k-1} \phi_k (S_k + \phi_k^T \bar{P}_{k-1} \phi_k)^{-1} \phi_k^T \bar{P}_{k-1}, \\ \bar{Q}_k &= \bar{L}_k - \bar{L}_k \psi_{k-r-1} (-I_{n_{k-r-1}} + \psi_{k-r-1}^T \bar{L}_k \psi_{k-r-1})^{-1} \psi_{k-r-1}^T \bar{L}_k, \\ \bar{P}_k &= \bar{Q}_k - \bar{Q}_k \psi_k (I_{n_k} + \psi_k^T \bar{Q}_k \psi_k)^{-1} \psi_k^T \bar{Q}_k. \end{aligned}$$

For all  $k \geq k_0$ , define  $\delta P_k \triangleq \bar{P}_k - P_k$  and note that  $\delta P_{k_0} = \Gamma$ . We now show numerically that  $\delta P_k$  does not decay to zero. In this paper, we mitigate this by resetting SW-VR-RLS at regular intervals.

We consider the same setup as in Example 6.3, where the input is white except, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $R_k = 3000I_n$  and  $w_k = 0$ . We compare SW-VR-RLS with  $P_{400}$  perturbed by a positive definite matrix  $\Gamma = \delta P_{400}$  and SW-VR-RLS with no perturbation. Figure 10 shows that the error  $\delta P_k$  does not decay.

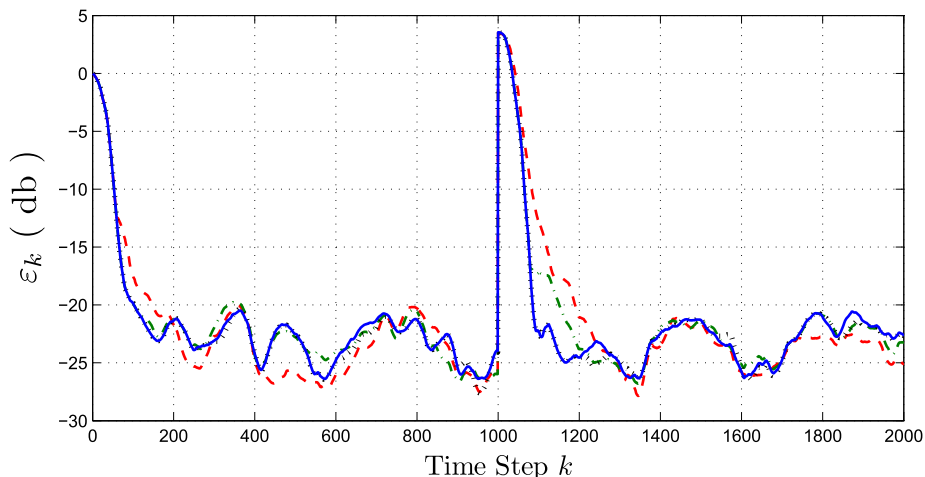


Figure 11. Effect of resetting on SW-VR-RLS for  $k_s = 60$  (dashed line),  $k_s = 120$  (dash-dotted line),  $k_s = 300$  (dotted line), and no resetting (solid line). This plot shows that, after  $\varepsilon_k$  reaches its asymptotic value and  $R_k = R_{\max}$ , then  $\varepsilon_k$  for SW-VR-RLS with covariance resetting does not deviate significantly from SW-VR-RLS without resetting.

We now numerically investigate the effect of resetting Algorithm 2 at regular intervals. The following procedure resets SW-VR-RLS at time step  $k$ .

1.  $x_k$  is unchanged.
2. For all  $i < k$ , set  $x_i = 0$ .
3. Set  $\alpha_k = x_k$ .
4. For all  $i \leq k$ , set  $A_i = 0$  and  $b_i = 0$ .
5. Set  $P_k = R_k^{-1}$ .

Note that the resetting procedure is the same for Algorithms 1 and 2 as the  $Q_k$ ,  $L_k$ , and  $P_k$  update equations are identical for both algorithms. Furthermore, note that if  $R_k$  is a diagonal matrix, then the inverse in step 5 is  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ . We now investigate the effect of periodically resetting SW-VR-RLS after  $k_s$  steps. For this example, we consider the same setup as in Example 6.3, where the input is white. We compare SW-VR-RLS without resetting and SW-VR-RLS with  $k_s = 60$ ,  $k_s = 120$  steps, and  $k_s = 300$  steps. We show  $\varepsilon_k$  for a single trial. Figure 11 shows that if  $\varepsilon_k$  reaches its asymptotic value and  $R_k = R_{\max}$ , then  $\varepsilon_k$  for SW-VR-RLS with covariance resetting does not deviate significantly from SW-VR-RLS without resetting. However, resetting SW-VR-RLS when  $R_k = R_{\min}$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  is adapting quickly yields slower convergence of  $\varepsilon_k$  to its asymptotic value as compared with SW-VR-RLS without resetting. Note that in all cases, resetting SW-VR-RLS does not introduce large transients in  $\varepsilon_k$ .

## 8. CONCLUSIONS

A sliding-window variable-regularization recursive-least-squares algorithm has been presented. This algorithm allows for a cost function that has a time-varying regularization term, which provides the ability to vary the weighting in the regularization as well as what is being weighted. The convergence properties of the algorithm in the absence of noise were proved, and the effects of window size and regularization were investigated numerically. Furthermore, SW-VR-RLS was numerically compared with PAPA and PNLMS for white and colored input noises. Numerical examples demonstrated that time-varying regularization can have a positive impact on the convergence properties. Numerical and experimental comparisons to other algorithms, such as those in [16–21], are areas for further investigation. The numerical stability of the algorithm was analyzed analytically and numerically, and it was proved that numerical errors in  $x_k$  decay to zero. Furthermore, the numerical errors in  $P_k$  were mitigated using resetting, and the effect of resetting on SW-VR-RLS was investigated numerically.



APPENDIX A: PROOFS OF THEOREMS 1, 2, AND 3

*Proof of Theorem 1*

To show (i), it follows from the first inequality in (22) that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $R_k \geq c_1 I_n$ , where  $c_1 \triangleq \varepsilon_1 \inf_{k \geq 0} \xi_k > 0$ . Because, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $A_k$  is positive semidefinite, it follows from (3) that  $P_k^{-1} \geq c_1 I_n$ , which implies that  $0 \leq P_k \leq \frac{1}{c_1} I_n$ . Thus,  $\{P_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded. Similarly, it follows from (6) and (8) that, for all  $k \geq 1$ ,  $Q_k^{-1} \geq c_1 I_n$  and  $L_k^{-1} \geq c_1 I_n$ , which imply that  $0 \leq Q_k \leq \frac{1}{c_1} I_n$  and  $0 \leq L_k \leq \frac{1}{c_1} I_n$ . Thus,  $\{Q_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$  and  $\{L_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$  are bounded.

To show (ii), note that because  $\{b_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded, it follows that  $\kappa_1 \triangleq \sup_k \|b_k\| < \infty$ . Additionally, because  $\{\alpha_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded, it follows that  $\kappa_2 \triangleq \sup_k \|\alpha_k\| < \infty$ . Furthermore, it follows from the last inequality in (22) that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $R_k \leq c_2 I_n$ , where  $c_2 \triangleq \varepsilon_2 \sup_{k \geq 0} \xi_k < \infty$ . Hence, it follows from (4) that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \|x_k\| &= \left\| \frac{1}{2} P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k b_i - 2R_k \alpha_k \right) \right\| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \|P_k\| \left\| \sum_{i=k-r}^k b_i - 2R_k \alpha_k \right\| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \|P_k\| \left( \left\| \sum_{i=k-r}^k b_i \right\| + 2\|R_k\| \|\alpha_k\| \right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{c_1} ((r+1)\kappa_1 + 2c_2\kappa_2). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded. □

*Proof of Theorem 2*

To show (i), let  $\chi_{\nu-1} = \chi_*$ . Then, it follows from (24) and (25) that  $\chi_{\nu,2} = \chi_{\nu,3} = \chi_{\nu,\nu} = \dots = x_*$ , and

$$\chi_{\nu,1} = -P_\nu \left( \sum_{i=\nu-r}^\nu \frac{1}{2} b_i - R_\nu x_* \right) = -P_\nu \left( - \sum_{i=\nu-r}^\nu \frac{1}{2} A_i - R_\nu \right) x_* = x_*$$

and thus,  $\chi_\nu = \chi_*$ . Similarly, for  $k = \nu$ , it follows from (24) and (25) that  $\chi_{\nu+1,2} = \chi_{\nu+1,3} = \chi_{\nu+1,\nu} = \dots = x_*$ , and

$$\chi_{\nu+1,1} = -P_{\nu+1} \left( \sum_{i=\nu+1-r}^{\nu+1} \frac{1}{2} b_i - R_{\nu+1} x_* \right) = -P_{\nu+1} \left( - \sum_{i=\nu+1-r}^{\nu+1} \frac{1}{2} A_i - R_{\nu+1} \right) x_* = x_*$$

and thus,  $\chi_{\nu+1} = \chi_*$ . It follows that, for all  $k > \nu - 2$ ,  $\chi_k = \chi_*$ , and thus,  $\chi_k \equiv \chi_*$  is an equilibrium solution of (24).

To show (ii), because, for all  $k \geq \nu$ ,  $\alpha_k = x_{k-\nu}$ , it follows from (4) that, for all  $k \geq \nu$ ,

$$x_k = -P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k \frac{1}{2} b_i - R_k x_{k-\nu} \right),$$

where, for all  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, \nu - 1\}$ , the initial conditions are  $P_j = \left( \sum_{i=j-r}^j A_i + R_j \right)^{-1}$  and  $x_j = -\frac{1}{2} P_0 \left( \sum_{i=j-r}^j b_i - 2R_j \eta \right)$ . It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_k &= P_k \left( \sum_{i=k-r}^k A_i + R_k \right) x_{k-v} - P_k \sum_{i=k-r}^k \left( A_i x_{k-v} + \frac{1}{2} b_i \right) \\
 &= x_{k-v} - P_k \sum_{i=k-r}^k \left( A_i x_{k-v} + \frac{1}{2} b_i \right).
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{39}$$

Define  $\tilde{x}_k \triangleq x_k - x_*$ . Subtracting  $x_*$  from (39), and using (23) and (25), yields, for all  $k \geq v$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tilde{x}_k &= \tilde{x}_{k-v} - P_k \sum_{i=k-r}^k A_i \tilde{x}_{k-v} \\
 &= \tilde{x}_{k-v} - P_k \Phi_k \Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v} \\
 &= P_k (P_k^{-1} - \Phi_k \Phi_k^T) \tilde{x}_{k-v} \\
 &= P_k R_k \tilde{x}_{k-v} \\
 &= \left[ R_k^{-1} - R_k^{-1} \Phi_k (I_{q_k} + \Phi_k^T R_k^{-1} \Phi_k)^{-1} \Phi_k^T R_k^{-1} \right] R_k \tilde{x}_{k-v} \\
 &= \tilde{x}_{k-v} - T_k^{-1} \Phi_k (\xi_k I_{q_k} + \Phi_k^T T_k^{-1} \Phi_k)^{-1} \Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v} \\
 &= \tilde{x}_{k-v} - T_k^{-1} \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v},
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{40}$$

where  $\Omega_k \triangleq \xi_k I_{q_k} + \Phi_k^T T_k^{-1} \Phi_k$ . Define  $\tilde{\chi}_k \triangleq \chi_k - \chi_*$ , and, for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, v\}$ , define  $\tilde{\chi}_{k,i} \triangleq \tilde{x}_{k-i+1}$ . Then, it follows from (24) and (40) that, for all  $k > v - 2$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\chi}_{k+1,1} \\ \tilde{\chi}_{k+1,2} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\chi}_{k+1,v} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (I - T_{k+1}^{-1} \Phi_{k+1} \Omega_{k+1}^{-1} \Phi_{k+1}^T) \tilde{\chi}_{k,v} \\ \tilde{\chi}_{k,1} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\chi}_{k,v-1} \end{bmatrix}.
 \tag{41}$$

Note that  $\tilde{\chi}_k \equiv 0$  is an equilibrium solution of (41). For all  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ , define the strictly increasing functions  $\alpha(z) \triangleq \varepsilon_1 z^2$  and  $\beta(z) \triangleq \varepsilon_2 z^2$ , and, for all  $k \geq v - 1$ , define the Lyapunov function

$$V(\tilde{\chi}_k, k) \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^v \tilde{\chi}_{k,i}^T T_{k+1-i} \tilde{\chi}_{k,i}.$$

The difference  $\Delta V_k \triangleq V(\tilde{\chi}_k, k) - V(\tilde{\chi}_{k-1}, k - 1)$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta V_k &= \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T (T_k - T_{k-v}) \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} - 2 \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} \\
 &\quad + \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T T_k^{-1} \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} \\
 &\leq -2 \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} + \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T T_k^{-1} \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} \\
 &= -\tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} (I_{q_k} + I_{q_k} - \Phi_k^T T_k^{-1} \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1}) \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} \\
 &= -\tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} [I_{q_k} + (\Omega_k - \Phi_k^T T_k^{-1} \Phi_k) \Omega_k^{-1}] \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} \\
 &= -\tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} (I_{q_k} + \xi_k \Omega_k^{-1}) \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v} \\
 &\leq -\tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}^T \Phi_k \Omega_k^{-1} \Phi_k^T \tilde{\chi}_{k-1,v}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{42}$$

Because, for all  $k \geq v - 1$  and  $\tilde{\chi}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{nv}$ ,  $\alpha(\|\tilde{\chi}_k\|) \leq V(\tilde{\chi}_k, k) \leq \beta(\|\tilde{\chi}_k\|)$  and  $\Delta V_k \leq 0$ , it follows from [23, Theorem 13.11] that the equilibrium solution  $\tilde{\chi}_k \equiv 0$  of (41) is uniformly Lyapunov stable. Furthermore, because  $\alpha(z) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $z \rightarrow \infty$ , it follows from [23, Corollary 13.4] that, for each  $\tilde{\chi}_{v-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{nv}$ , the sequence  $\{\tilde{\chi}_k\}_{k=v-1}^\infty$  is bounded. Hence, for each  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\{\tilde{x}_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded, and thus,  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded.

To show (iii), it follows from (42) that

$$0 \leq \sum_{j=v}^k \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v} \leq - \sum_{j=v}^k \Delta V_j = V(\tilde{x}_{v-1}, v-1) - V(\tilde{x}_k, k) \leq V(\tilde{x}_{v-1}, v-1).$$

Hence, the nondecreasing sequence  $\left\{ \sum_{j=v}^k \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v} \right\}_{k=v}^\infty$  is bounded, and thus,  $\sum_{j=v}^\infty \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v}$  exists.

Next, for all  $k \geq v$ , define  $\mathcal{M}_k \triangleq \sum_{j=v}^k \|x_j - x_{j-v}\|^2$ , and it follows from (40) that

$$\mathcal{M}_k = \sum_{j=v}^k \|T_j^{-1} \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v}\|^2 \leq \sum_{j=v}^k \|T_j^{-1}\| \|\tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T T_j^{-1} \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v}\|.$$

Note that, for all  $k \geq v$ ,  $\|T_k^{-1}\| \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} I_n = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1}$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}_k &\leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} \sum_{j=v}^k \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} (\xi_j I_{q_j} + \Phi_j^T T_j^{-1} \Phi_j - \xi_j I_{q_j}) \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v} \\ &= \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} \sum_{j=v}^k \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v} - \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} \sum_{j=v}^k \xi_j \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-2} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} \sum_{j=v}^k \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v}. \end{aligned}$$

Because  $\sum_{j=v}^\infty \tilde{x}_{j-v}^T \Phi_j \Omega_j^{-1} \Phi_j^T \tilde{x}_{j-v}$  exists, it follows that the nondecreasing sequence  $\{\mathcal{M}_k\}_{k=v}^\infty$  is bounded, and thus,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{M}_k$  exists, which verifies (iii).

To show (iv), because  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded, it follows that  $\{\Phi_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded. Because, in addition,  $\{\xi_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  and  $\{T_k^{-1}\}_{k=0}^\infty$  are bounded, it follows that there exists  $c_3 > 0$  such that, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $c_3 I_{q_k} \leq \sigma_{\min}(\Omega_k^{-1/2}) I_{q_k} \leq \Omega_k^{-1/2}$ , which implies that

$$0 \leq c_3 \|\Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v}\| \leq \sigma_{\min}(\Omega_k^{-1/2}) \|\Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v}\| \leq \|\Omega_k^{-1/2} \Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v}\|.$$

Therefore, because (iii) implies that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Omega_k^{-1/2} \Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v} = 0$ , it follows that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Phi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v} = 0$ , which implies that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v} = 0$ .

Next, because  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is bounded, it follows that  $\kappa \triangleq \sup_{k \geq 0} \sigma_{\max}(\psi_k) < \infty$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \|A_k x_k + \frac{1}{2} b_k\| &= \|A_k x_k - A_k x_*\| \\ &= \|\psi_k \psi_k^T \tilde{x}_k\| \\ &\leq \kappa \|\psi_k^T \tilde{x}_k\| \\ &= \kappa \|\psi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v} + \psi_k^T \tilde{x}_k - \psi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v}\| \\ &\leq \kappa (\|\psi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v}\| + \|\psi_k\| \|\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-v}\|) \\ &\leq \kappa (\|\psi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v}\| + \kappa \|\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-v}\|) \\ &= \kappa \|\psi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v}\| + \kappa^2 \|\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-v}\|. \end{aligned} \tag{43}$$

Because  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_k^T \tilde{x}_{k-v} = 0$ , and (iii) implies that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-v}) = 0$ , it follows from (43) that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (A_k x_k + \frac{1}{2} b_k) = 0$ , which confirms (iv).

To show (v), it follows from (43) that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k \tilde{x}_k = 0$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_k^T \tilde{x}_k = 0$ . Next, using arguments similar to those used in (43), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\|A_{k-\nu}\tilde{x}_k\| &\leq \kappa\|\psi_{k-\nu}^T\tilde{x}_k\| \\
&= \kappa\|\psi_{k-\nu}^T\tilde{x}_{k-\nu} + \psi_{k-\nu}^T\tilde{x}_k - \psi_{k-\nu}^T\tilde{x}_{k-\nu}\| \\
&\leq \kappa\|\psi_{k-\nu}^T\tilde{x}_{k-\nu}\| + \kappa^2\|\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-\nu}\|.
\end{aligned} \tag{44}$$

Because  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_k^T \tilde{x}_k = 0$ , and (iii) implies that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-\nu}) = 0$ , it follows from (44) that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_{k-\nu} \tilde{x}_k = 0$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_{k-\nu}^T \tilde{x}_k = 0$ . Again, using arguments similar to those used in (43), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\|A_{k-2\nu}\tilde{x}_k\| &\leq \kappa\|\psi_{k-2\nu}^T\tilde{x}_k\| \\
&= \kappa\|\psi_{k-2\nu}^T\tilde{x}_{k-\nu} + \psi_{k-2\nu}^T\tilde{x}_k - \psi_{k-2\nu}^T\tilde{x}_{k-\nu}\| \\
&\leq \kappa\|\psi_{k-2\nu}^T\tilde{x}_{k-\nu}\| + \kappa^2\|\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-\nu}\|.
\end{aligned} \tag{45}$$

Because  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_{k-\nu}^T \tilde{x}_k = 0$ , and (iii) implies that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (\tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-\nu}) = 0$ , it follows from (45) that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_{k-2\nu} \tilde{x}_k = 0$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \psi_{k-2\nu}^T \tilde{x}_k = 0$ . Repeating this argument shows that, for all  $i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, l\}$ ,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_{k-\nu i} \tilde{x}_k = 0$ . Because, for all  $k \geq \nu l - r$ ,  $cI_n \leq \sum_{i=0}^l A_{k-\nu i}$ , it follows that

$$\|\tilde{x}_k\| \leq \frac{1}{c} \left\| \sum_{i=0}^l A_{k-\nu i} \tilde{x}_k \right\| \leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{i=0}^l \|A_{k-\nu i} \tilde{x}_k\|,$$

which implies that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{x}_k = 0$ . Thus,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \chi_k = \chi_*$ , and the equilibrium solution  $\chi_k \equiv \chi_*$  of (24) is globally asymptotically stable.  $\square$

### Proof of Theorem 3

To show (i), note that the update equations for  $L_k$ ,  $Q_k$ , and  $P_k$  are identical to those in SW-VR-RLS. Thus, (i) follows directly from Theorem 1.

To show (ii) and (iii), it follows from (32) and (23) that, for all  $k \geq k_0 + \nu$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta_k &= P_k R_k \delta_{k-\nu} \\
&= \left[ R_k^{-1} - R_k^{-1} \Phi_k (I_{q_k} + \Phi_k^T R_k^{-1} \Phi_k)^{-1} \Phi_k^T R_k^{-1} \right] R_k \delta_{k-\nu} \\
&= \delta_{k-\nu} - T_k^{-1} \Phi_k (\xi_k I_{q_k} + \Phi_k^T T_k^{-1} \Phi_k)^{-1} \Phi_k^T \delta_{k-\nu}.
\end{aligned}$$

The remainder of the proof of (ii) and (iii) is analogous to the proof of Theorem 2 from (40) onwards with  $x_k$  replaced by  $\delta_k$ ,  $x_*$  replaced by 0,  $\tilde{x}_k$  replaced by  $\delta_k$ , and  $\tilde{\chi}_k$  replaced by  $\Delta_k$ .  $\square$

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