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Autonomous Tracking and State Estimation With Generalized Group Lasso

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Abstract—We address the problem of autonomous tracking and state estimation for marine vessels, autonomous vehicles, and other dynamic signals under a (structured) sparsity assumption. The aim is to improve the tracking and estimation accuracy with respect to the classical Bayesian filters and smoothers. We formulate the estimation problem as a dynamic generalized group Lasso problem and develop a class of smoothing-and-splitting methods to solve it. The Levenberg–Marquardt iterated extended Kalman smoother-based multiblock alternating direction method of multipliers (LM-IEKS-mADMMs) algorithms are based on the alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMMs) framework. This leads to minimization subproblems with an inherent structure to which three new augmented recursive smoothers are applied. Our methods can deal with large-scale problems without preprocessing for dimensionality reduction. Moreover, the methods allow one to solve nonsmooth nonconvex optimization problems. We then prove that under mild conditions, the proposed methods converge to a stationary point of the optimization problem. By simulated and real-data experiments, including multisensor range measurement problems, marine vessel tracking, autonomous vehicle tracking, and audio signal restoration, we show the practical effectiveness of the proposed methods.

Index Terms—Alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMMs), autonomous tracking, group Lasso, Kalman smoother (KS), sparsity, state estimation.

I. INTRODUCTION

AUTONOMOUS tracking and state estimation problems are active research topics with many real-world applications, including intelligent maritime navigation, autonomous vehicle tracking, and audio signal estimation [1]–[5]. The aim is to autonomously estimate and track the state (e.g., position, velocity, or direction) of the dynamic system using imperfect measurements [6]. A frequently used approach for autonomous tracking and estimation problems is based on Bayesian filtering and smoothing. When the target dynamics and observation models are linear and Gaussian, the Kalman smoother (KS) [1], [7] provides the optimal Bayesian solution, which coincides with the optimal minimum mean square error estimator in that case. In the case of nonlinear dynamic systems, the iterated extended KS (IEKS) [8]–[10] makes use of local affine approximations by means of a Taylor series for the nonlinear functions, and then iteratively carries out KS. Sigma-point-based smoothing methods [11], [12] employ sigma-points to approximate the probability density of the states, which can preserve higher order accuracy than IEKS. Random sampling-based filters, such as particle filters [1], [13]–[15], can be used to deal with nonlinear tracking situations involving potentially arbitrary nonlinearities, noise, and constraints. Although these trackers and estimators are capable of utilizing the measurement information to obtain the estimates, they ignore sparsity dictated by the physical attributes of dynamic systems.

The motivation for our work comes from the following real-world applications. One significant application is marine vessel tracking [5], [6]. Vessels are frequently pitching and rolling on the surface of the ocean, which can be modeled as sparsity in the process noise. Our methodology is also applicable to autonomous vehicle tracking, which enables a vehicle to autonomously avoid obstacles and maintain safe distances to other vehicles. In the presence of many sudden stops (i.e., velocities are zero), the tracking accuracy can be improved by employing sparsity [16]. Other examples of tracked targets include robots [9] and unmanned aerial vehicles [17]. Another practical application is audio signal restoration, where, typically, only a few time–frequency elements are expected to be present and, thus, sparsity is an advisable assumption [18]. For example, the Gabor synthesis representation with sparsity constraints has proven to be suitable for audio restoration [19]. Similar problems can also be found in electrocardiogram (ECG) signal analysis [20] and automatic music transcription [21]. Hence, computationally effective sparsity modeling methods are in demand.

Since sparsity may improve the tracking and estimation performance, there is a growing amount of literature that proposes sparse regularizers, such as the Lasso (i.e., the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator or $L_1$-regularization) [22], [23] or total variation (TV) [24], [25] for these applications. The existing methods for sparse tracking and estimation can be split into two broad categories: 1) robust smoothing approaches and 2) optimization-based approaches. The former approaches merge filtering and smoothing with $L_1$-regularization. For instance, the
modified recursive filter-based compressive sensing methods were developed in [26]–[29]. An $L_1$-Laplace robust KS was presented in [30]. Using both sparsity and dynam- ics information, a sparse Bayesian learning framework was proposed in [31]. The latter approaches formulate the entire tracking and state estimation problem as an $L_1$-penalized minimization problem and then apply iterative algorithms to solve the minimization problem [16], [32]–[36]. While these $L_1$-penalized estimators offer several benefits, they penalize individual elements of the state vector or process noise instead of groups of elements in them.

Recently, there have been important advances in the structured sparsity methodology for collision avoidance [37], [38]; path-following and tracking [39], [40]; and visual tracking [41], [42]. In [43], a discriminative supervised hashing method was proposed for object tracking tasks. An adaptive elastic echo state network was developed for multivariate time-series prediction in [44]. The work in [45] formulated a moving tracking problem with $L_2$-norm constraints and then introduced a temporal consistency dictionary learning algorithm. However, the methods lack strong convergence and performance guarantees, particularly when the objective becomes nonconvex. Moreover, relatively, few methods exist for incorporating structured sparsity into autonomous tracking and state estimation problems. Taking these developments into consideration, the main goal here is to develop new efficient methods for regularized autonomous tracking and estimation problems, which allow for group Lasso type of sparseness assumptions on groups of state or process noise elements.

When we formulate a regularized autonomous tracking and state estimation problem as a generalized $L_2$-minimization problem (also called the dynamic generalized group Lasso problem), the resulting problem is difficult to solve due to its nonsmoothness and/or nonconvexity. Splitting-based optimization methods [46]–[48], such as multiblock alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMMs) [47], are methods that can tackle this kind of problem. One advantage of these methods is that they decompose the original problem into a sequence of easier subproblems. Although these methods can directly work on the original optimization problem, such direct use ignores the inherent structure induced by the implied Markovian structure in the optimization problem. In this article, we propose a class of efficient smoothing-and-splitting methods that outperform the classical optimization methods in terms of computational time due to the leveraging of the Markovian structure.

In this article, we focus on autonomous tracking and state estimation problems with sparsity-inducing priors. Our first contribution is to provide a flexible formulation of the dynamic generalized group Lasso problems arising in autonomous tracking and state estimation. Special cases of the formulation are Lasso, isotropic TV, anisotropic TV, fused Lasso, group Lasso, and sparse group Lasso. Meanwhile, the formulation can cope with sparsity on the process noise or the state in dynamic systems. Since the resulting optimization problems are nonsmooth, possibly nonconvex, and large-dimensional, our second contribution is to provide a class of the smoothing-and-splitting methods to address them. We develop the new KS-mADMM, Gauss–Newton IEKS-mADMM (GN-IEKS-mADMM), and Levenberg–Marquardt IEKS-mADMM (LM-IEKS-mADMM) methods, which use augmented recursive smoothers to solve the primal subproblems in the mADMM iterations. As a third contribution, we prove that under mild conditions, the proposed methods converge to a stationary point. Our fourth contribution is to apply the proposed methods to real-world applications of marine vessel tracking, autonomous vehicle tracking, and audio signal restoration.

The remainder of this article is structured as follows. In Section II, we formulate the sparse autonomous tracking and state estimation problem as a generalized $L_2$-minimization problem. Particularly, we present a broad class of regulariser configurations parameterized by sets of matrices and vectors. We introduce the batch tracking and estimation methods in Section III and present three augmented recursive smoothing methods in Section IV. In Section V, we establish the convergence. In Section VI, we report numerical results on simulated and real-life datasets. Section VII draws the concluding remarks.

The notation is as follows. Matrices $X$ and vectors $x$ are indicated in boldface. $(\cdot)^T$ represents the transposition and $(\cdot)^{-1}$ represents the matrix inversion. The $R$-weighted norm of $x$ is denoted by $\|x\|_R = \sqrt{x^T Rx}$. $|x|$ denotes the $L_1$-norm and $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$ denotes the $L_2$-norm. $X_{g,t}$ is the $(g,t)$th element of matrix $X$, and $x^{(k)}$ denotes the value of $x$ at the $k$th iteration. vec$(\cdot)$ represents a vectorization operator, diag$(\cdot)$ represents a block-diagonal matrix operator with the elements in its argument on the diagonal, and $x_{1:T} = \text{vec}(x_1, \ldots, x_T)$. $\partial \phi(x)$ denotes a subgradient of $\phi$. $J_{\phi}$ is the Jacobian of $\phi(x)$. $\delta_+(A)$ denotes the smallest eigenvalue of $A$. $p(x)$ denotes the probability density function (pdf) of $x$ and $N(x|m, \Sigma)$ denotes a Gaussian pdf with mean $m$ and covariance $\Sigma$ evaluated at $x$.

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Let $y_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_y}$ be a measurement of a dynamic system and $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x}$ be an unknown state (sometimes called the source or signal). The state and measurement are related according to a dynamic state-space model of the form

$$x_t = a_t(x_{t-1}) + q_t, \quad y_t = h_t(x_t) + r_t$$

(1)

where $h_t : \mathbb{R}^{N_x} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{N_y}$ and $a_t : \mathbb{R}^{N_x} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{N_x}$ are the measurement and state transition functions, respectively, and $t = 1, \ldots, T$ is the time step number. The process and measurement noises $q_t \sim N(0, Q_t)$ and $r_t \sim N(0, R_t)$ are assumed to be zero-mean Gaussian with covariances $Q_t$ and $R_t$, respectively. The initial condition at $t = 1$ is given by $x_1 \sim N(m_1, P_1)$. A particular special case of (1) is an affine Gaussian model by

$$a_t(x_{t-1}) = A_t x_{t-1} + b_t, \quad h_t(x_t) = H_t x_t + e_t$$

(2)

where $A_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_y \times N_x}$ and $H_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_y \times N_x}$ are the transition and measurement matrices, and $b_t$ and $e_t$ are bias terms.

The goal here is to obtain the “best estimate” of $x_{1:T}$ from imperfect measurements $y_{1:T}$. For computing $x_{1:T}$ with
TABLE I
EXAMPLES OF SPARSITY-PROMOTING REGULARISERS THAT ARE INCLUDED IN THE PRESENT FRAMEWORK

| Regularisation | Description |
|----------------|-------------|
| L2-regularisation | $G_{g,t}$ is an identity matrix |
| Lasso | $N_g = N_p$, $P_g = 1$ for all $g$. $G_{g,t}$ has 1 at $g$-th column and zeros otherwise. |
| Isotopic TV | $N_g = 1$, $P_g = N_g - 1$, $G_{g,t}$ encodes a finite difference operator. |
| Anisotropic TV | $G_{g,t}$ encodes the $g$-th row of a finite difference operator. |
| Fused Lasso | $g = 1, \ldots, N_g$, $P_g = 1$ for all $g$. $G_{g,t}$ has 1 at $g$-th column and zeros otherwise; $g = N_g + 1, \ldots, N_g$, $G_{g,t}$ encodes the $g$-th row of a finite difference operator. |
| Group Lasso | $G_{g,t}$ has 1, corresponding to the selected elements of $x_t$ in the group and zeros otherwise. |
| Sparse group Lasso | $g = 1, \ldots, N_g$, $P_g = 1$, $G_{g,t}$ has 1 at $g$-th column and zeros otherwise; $g = N_g + 1, \ldots, N_g$, $G_{g,t}$ has the same setting with group Lasso. |

Flexible Sparsity Assumptions by Selecting $B_t$ and $d_t$

| Dynamic System | Sparsity on: | State | Process Noise |
|----------------|-------------|-------|---------------|
| Affine Gaussian | $B_t$ and $d_t$ | $B_t = A_t$, $d_t = b_t$ |
| Nonlinear | $B_t = 0$, $d_t = 0$ | $B_t x_{t-1} + d_t$ as the affine approximation of $a_t(x_{t-1})$ (see Section IV-B) |

III. BATCH TRACKING AND ESTIMATION METHODS

In this section, we introduce the multiblock ADMM (mADMM) framework. Based on this framework, we derive batch algorithms for solving the regularized tracking and state estimation problem.

A. General Multiblock ADMM Framework

The methods that we develop are based on the mADMM [47]. The mADMM provides an algorithmic framework that is applicable to problems of the form (3), and it can be instantiated by defining the auxiliary variables and their update steps. We introduce auxiliary variables $v_t$ and $w_{g,t}$, $g = 1, \ldots, N_g$, $t = 1, \ldots, T$, and then build the following constraints:

$$x_t - B_t x_{t-1} - d_t = v_t$$
$$w_{1,t} = G_{1,t} v_t$$
$$\vdots$$
$$w_{N_g,t} = G_{N_g,t} v_t.$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

Note that in (4), we could alternatively introduce auxiliary variables $w_{g,t} = G_{g,t}(x_t - B_t x_{t-1} - d_t)$, but this replacement would require $G_{g,t}$ to be invertible when using the augmented recursive smoothers later on. To avoid such restrictions, we employ variables $v_t$ and $w_{g,t}$ to build the more general constraints in this article.

For simplicity of notation, we denote $w_t = \left[ w_{1,t}^T, \ldots, w_{N_g,t}^T \right]^T$ and $G_t = \left[ G_{1,t}^T, \ldots, G_{N_g,t}^T \right]^T$, and then solve (3), using an equivalent constrained optimization problem

$$\min_{x_{1:T},w_{1:T}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \| y_t - h_t(x_t) \|_{R_t}^2 + \sum_{g=1}^{N_g} \mu \| w_{g,t} \|_2 \right]$$
$$+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=2}^{T} \| x_t - a_t(x_{t-1}) \|_{Q_t}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| x_1 - m_1 \|_{P_1}^2$$
$$\text{s.t.} \left[ \begin{array}{c} x_t - B_t x_{t-1} - d_t \\ w_t \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c} I \\ G_t \end{array} \right] v_t, \quad t = 1, \ldots, T.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)
The variables $x_{1:T}$, $w_{1:T}$, and $v_{1:T}$ can be handled by defining the augmented Lagrangian function

$$
\mathcal{L}_y(x_{1:T}, w_{1:T}, v_{1:T}, \eta_{1:T}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \|y_t - h_t(x_t)\|^2_{R_t^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \left\|x_1 - m_1\right\|^2_{P_t^{-1}}
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=2}^{T} \left\|x_t - a_t(x_{t-1})\right\|^2_{Q_t^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \left\|x_1 - m_1\right\|^2_{P_t^{-1}}
+ \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{g=1}^{N_g} \mu \|w_{g,t}\|^2 + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \eta_{g,t}^T \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} u_t \\ w_t \end{array}\right] - \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G_t \end{array}\right] v_t \right)
+ \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\|\frac{y_t}{2} \left[\begin{array}{c} u_t \\ w_t \end{array}\right] - \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G_t \end{array}\right] v_t \right\|^2_2
$$

(6)

where $u_t = x_t - B_t x_{t-1} - d_t$, $\eta_{g,t} \in \mathbb{R}^{(N_g + P_g \times N_g)}$ is a Lagrangian multiplier and $\gamma > 0$ is a penalty parameter.

The mADMM framework minimizes the function $\mathcal{L}_y$ by alternating the $x_{1:T}$-minimization step, the $w_{1:T}$-minimization step, the $v_{1:T}$-minimization step, and the dual variable $\eta_{1:T}$ update step. Given $(x_{1:T}, w_{1:T}, v_{1:T}, \eta_{1:T})$, the iteration of mADMM has the following steps:

$$x_{1:T}^{(k+1)} = \arg\min_{x_{1:T}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{1}{2} \left\|y_t - h_t(x_t)\right\|^2_{R_t^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \left\|x_1 - m_1\right\|^2_{P_t^{-1}}
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=2}^{T} \left\|x_t - a_t(x_{t-1})\right\|^2_{Q_t^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \left\|x_1 - m_1\right\|^2_{P_t^{-1}}
+ \gamma \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\|u_t - v^{(k)}_t \right\|^2_2
$$

(7a)

$$w_{1:T}^{(k+1)} = \arg\min_{w_{1:T}} \sum_{g=1}^{N_g} \mu \|w_{g,t}\|^2 + \gamma \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\|u_t - v^{(k)}_t \right\|^2_2
$$

(7b)

$$v_{1:T}^{(k+1)} = \arg\min_{v_{1:T}} \frac{\gamma}{2} \left\|\left[\begin{array}{c} u_t^{(k+1)} \\ w_t^{(k+1)} \end{array}\right] - \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G_t \end{array}\right] v_t + \frac{\eta_{g,t}^{(k)}}{2} \right\|^2_2
$$

(7c)

$$\eta_{1:T}^{(k+1)} = \eta_{1:T}^{(k)} + \gamma \left[\begin{array}{c} u_t^{(k+1)} \\ w_t^{(k+1)} \end{array}\right] - \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G_t \end{array}\right] v_t + \frac{\eta_{g,t}^{(k)}}{2}
$$

(7d)

where $\eta_{1:T} = \text{vec}(\eta_1, \eta_{1:t-1}, \ldots, \eta_{N_{g:t}})$. We solve $w_t$, $v_t$, and $\eta_t$ subproblems for each $t$, respectively. The $w_t$-subproblem and $v_t$-subproblem have the solutions

$$w_{t}^{(k+1)} = S_{\mu/\gamma} (G_t v_t^{(k)} - \eta_{g,t}^{(k)}/\gamma)
$$

(8a)

$$v_{t}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{\gamma} \left(1 + G_t^T G_t\right)^{-1} \left[\begin{array}{c} u_t^{(k+1)} \\ v_t^{(k+1)} \end{array}\right] + \eta_{t}^{(k)}/\gamma
$$

(8b)

where $S_{\mu/\gamma} (\cdot)$ is the shrinkage operator [49].

Given the mADMM framework, the solutions in (8a), (8b), and (7d) are the basic steps of our methods. In a single iteration, the $w_t$-update can be computed in $O(N_g)$ operations, and each $v_t$-update takes $O(N_g^2)$. However, when the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem is solved by the batch estimation methods, it typically takes $O(N_g T^3)$ operations. Thus, the main computational demand is in updating $x_{1:T}$. Our main goal here is to derive efficient methods for the $x_{1:T}$-minimization step. Before that, we first develop batch methods to solve the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem.

### B. Batch Solution for Affine Systems

The first batch method we explore is for the affine Gaussian systems. We first stack all the state variables into single variables and then rewrite the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem (7a) in the form

$$x^* = \arg\min_x \frac{1}{2} \left\|y - H x - e\right\|^2_{R^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \left\|m - A x - b\right\|^2_{Q^{-1}}
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \left\|\Phi x - d - v^{(k)} + \eta^{(k)} / \gamma\right\|^2_2
$$

(9)

where we have set

$$x = x_{1:T}, \quad \Phi = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} I & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -B_2 & I & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -B_T & \cdots & -B_1 & I \end{array}\right].
$$

(10)

The other variables $y$, $e$, $m$, $d$, $v$, $\eta$, $H$, $R$, $Q$, and $A$ are defined analogously to [16, eq. (17)]. By setting the derivative to 0, the solution is

$$x^{(k+1)} = \left(\Phi^T \Phi\right)^{-1} \left(H^T R^{-1} H + A^T Q^{-1} A + \gamma \Phi^T \Phi\right)^{-1} \left(H^T R^{-1} (y - e) + A^T Q^{-1} (m - b) + \gamma \Phi^T (d - v^{(k)} + \eta^{(k)} / \gamma)\right).
$$

(11)

In other words, computing the $x$-minimization amounts to solving a linear system with the coefficient matrix $H^T R^{-1} H + A^T Q^{-1} A + \gamma \Phi^T \Phi$. When the matrix inverse exists, the $x$-subproblem has a unique solution. In addition, with a sparsity assumption on the states $x_t$, $\Phi$ is an identity matrix, and $d$ is a zero vector. When the noise $q_t$ is sparse, we can set

$$\Phi = A, \quad d = m - b
$$

(12)

which corresponds to the setting of $B_t$ and $d_t$ according to Table II.

The disadvantage of the batch solution is that it requires an extensive amount of computations when $T$ is large. For this reason, in Section IV-A, we propose to use an augmented recursive smoother, which is mathematically equivalent to the batch method, to improve the computational performance.

### C. Gauss–Newton for Nonlinear Systems

When the system is nonlinear, we use a similar batch notation as in the affine case and, in addition, define the nonlinear functions

$$a(x) = \text{vec}(x_1, x_2 - a_2(x_1), \ldots, x_T - a_T(x_{T-1}))
$$

$$h(x) = \text{vec}(h_1(x_1), \ldots, h_T(x_T)).
$$

(13)

The primal $x_{1:T}$-subproblem then has the form

$$x^{(k+1)} = \arg\min_x \theta(x)
$$

(14)
The function $\theta(x)$ can now be minimized by the Gauss–Newton (GN) method [46]. In GN, we first linearize the nonlinear functions $a(x)$ and $h(x)$ and then replace them in $\theta(x)$ by the linear (or actually affine) approximations. The GN iteration then becomes

$$x^{k+1} = \left( J_h^T J_h \right)^{-1} J_h^T \left( y - h(x^{(k)}) + J_h \left( x^{(k)}, \theta \right) x^{(k)} \right) + J_h^T \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma} \right) \theta \Phi + d - v^{(k)} + \gamma \frac{\theta}{\gamma}$$

where

$$J_h^T J_h(x) \approx J_h^T (x) R^{-1} J_h(x) + J_h(x) Q^{-1} J_h(x) + \gamma \Phi^T \Phi.$$  

The above computations are carried out iteratively until a maximum number of iterations $I_{\text{max}}$ is reached. We take the solution $x^{(k_{\text{max}})}$ as the next iterate $x^{(k+1)}$. While GN avoids the trouble of computing the Hessians of the model functions, it has problems when the Jacobians are rank-deficient. The Levenberg–Marquardt (LM) method is introduced next to address this problem.

**D. Levenberg–Marquardt Method**

The LM method [50], also called the regularized or damped GN method, improves the performance of GN by using an additional regularization term. With damping factors $\lambda^{(i)} > 0$ and a sequence of positive-definite regularization matrices $S^{(i)}$, function $\theta(x)$ can be approximated by

$$\theta(x) \approx \frac{1}{2} \left\| y - h(x^{(i)}) + J_h \left( x^{(i)}, \theta \right) \left( x - x^{(i)} \right) \right\|^2_{R^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \left\| m - a(x^{(i)}) + J_a \left( x^{(i)} \right) \left( x - x^{(i)} \right) \right\|^2_{Q^{-1}} + \frac{\gamma}{\gamma} \left\| \Phi x - d - v^{(k)} + \eta^{(k)} / \gamma \right\|^2_2 + \frac{\lambda^{(i)}}{2} \left\| x - x^{(i)} \right\|^2_{S^{(i)}}.$$  

Using the minimum of this approximate cost function at each step $i$ as the next iterate, we obtain the following iteration:

$$x^{(k_{i}+1)} = \left( J_h^T J_h \right)^{-1} J_h^T \left( y - h(x^{(k)}) + J_h \left( x^{(k)}, \theta \right) x^{(k)} \right) + J_h^T \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma} \right) \theta \Phi + d - v^{(k)} + \gamma \frac{\theta}{\gamma}$$

which is the LM method, when augmented with an adaptation scheme for the regularization parameters $\lambda^{(i)} > 0$. The regularization parameter here helps to overcome some problematic cases, for example, the case when $J_h^T J_h(x)$ is rank-deficient, by ensuring the existence of the unique minimum of the approximate cost function.

At each mADMM iteration, the computation in the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem, such as (11), (16), and (18), has a high cost when $T$ is large (e.g., $T = 10^5$). As discussed above, the main computational demand is indeed in the update of $x_{1:T}$. Therefore, we utilize the equivalence between batch solutions and recursive smoothers, and then develop efficient augmented recursive smoother methods for solving the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem.

**IV. AUGMENTED RECURSIVE SMOOTHERS**

In the section, we will present the augmented KS, GN-IEKS, and LM-IEKS methods for solving the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem.

**A. Augmented Kalman Smoother for Affine Systems**

Solving the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem involves the minimization of a quadratic optimization problem, which can be efficiently solved by KS (see [51] for details). We rewrite the batch minimization problem (9) as

$$x_{1:T}^* = \arg \min_{x_{1:T}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| y_t - H_t x_t - e_t \right\|^2_{R_t^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=2}^{T} \left\| x_t - A_t x_{t-1} - b_t \right\|^2_{Q_t^{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} \left\| x_t - m_t \right\|^2_{P_t^{-1}} + \gamma \left\| x_t - B_t x_{t-1} - d_t - v_t + \theta / \gamma \right\|^2_2 + \frac{1}{2} \left\| x_t - m_t - v_t + \theta / \gamma \right\|^2_2.$$

It is worth noting that when $B_t = 0$ and $d_t = 0$, the cost function corresponds to the function minimized by KS, which leads to a similar method as was presented in [16]. For notational convenience, we leave out the iteration number $k$ of mADMM in the following.

Here, we consider the general case, where $B_t$ and $d_t$ are nonzero. Such a case is more complicated as we cannot have two dynamic models in a state-space model. For building a dynamic state-space model, we need to fuse the terms in the pairs $(1/2) \left\| x_t - A_t x_{t-1} - b_t \right\|^2_{Q_t^{-1}}$ and $(1/2) \left\| x_t - B_t x_{t-1} - d_t - v_t + \theta / \gamma \right\|^2_2$, along with $(1/2) \left\| x_t - m_t \right\|^2_{P_t^{-1}}$ and $(1/2) \left\| x_t - m_t - v_t + \theta / \gamma \right\|^2_2$ into single terms. We combine matrices $A_t$ and $B_t$ to an artificial transition matrix $\tilde{A}_t$, fuse $b_t$ and $(d_t+v_t-\theta / \gamma)$ to an artificial bias $\tilde{b}_t$, and introduce an artificial covariance $\tilde{Q}_t$, which yields

$$\tilde{A}_t = \left( Q_t^{-1} + \gamma I \right)^{-1} \left( Q_t^{-1} A_t + \gamma B_t \right)$$

$$\tilde{b}_t = \left( Q_t^{-1} + \gamma I \right)^{-1} \left( Q_t^{-1} b_t + \gamma d_t + \gamma v_t - \theta / \gamma \right)$$

$$\tilde{Q}_t^{-1} = Q_t^{-1} + \gamma I.$$  

(20)
Now, the new artificial dynamic model (20) allows us to use KS to solve the minimization problem. Problem (19) becomes

\[
x_{1,T}^* = \arg \min_{x_{1,T}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \| y_i - H_i x_i - e_i \|_R^{-1}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| x_i - \tilde{m}_i \|_P^{-1}_1^2
\]

(21)

which corresponds to a state-space model, where additionally the initial state has mean \( \tilde{m}_1 = (P_{1-1}^{-1} + \gamma I)^{-1}(P_{1-1}^{-1} m_1 + \gamma v_1) \) and covariance \( \tilde{P}_1^{-1} = P_{1-1}^{-1} + \gamma I \). The solution in (21) can be then computed by running KS on the augmented state-space model

\[
p(x_i | x_{i-1}) = \mathcal{N}\left(x_i \mid \tilde{A}_i x_{i-1} + \tilde{b}_i, \tilde{Q}_i\right)
\]

(22a)

\[
p(y_i | x_i) = \mathcal{N}\left(y_i \mid H_i x_i + e_i, R_i\right).
\]

(22b)

The augmented KS requires only \( O(N^3T) \) operations, which are much less than the corresponding batch solution in (11). The augmented KS method is summarized in Algorithm 1.

### B. Gauss–Newton IEKS for Nonlinear Systems

The solution of (15) has similar computational scaling challenges as the affine case discussed in the previous section. However, we can use the equivalence of IEKS and GN [8] to construct an efficient iterative solution for the optimization problem in the primal space. In the GN-IEKS method, we first approximate the nonlinear model by linearization and then use KS on the linearized model. The \( x_{1,T} \)-subproblem now takes the form of (7a). In IEKS, at the \( i \)-th iteration, we form affine approximations of \( a_i(x_{i-1}) \) and \( h_i(x) \) as follows:

\[
a_i(x_{i-1}) \approx a_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) + J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right)(x_i - x_{i-1}^{(i)})
\]

\[
h_i(x) \approx h_i\left(x_i^{(i)}\right) + J_{h_i}\left(x_i^{(i)}\right)(x_i - x_i^{(i)}).
\]

(23)

We replace the nonlinear functions in the cost function with the above approximations, and compute the next iterate as the solution to the minimization problem

\[
x_{1,T}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{x_{1,T}} \frac{1}{2} \| y_i - h_i\left(x_i^{(i)}\right) + J_{h_i}\left(x_i^{(i)}\right)(x_i - x_i^{(i)}) \|_R^{-1}^2
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{T} \| x_i - a_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) + J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right)(x_i - x_{i-1}^{(i)}) \|_Q^{-1}^2
\]

\[
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{T} \| x_i - h_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) - d_i - v_i - \bar{v}_{i-1}) \|_R^{-1}^2
\]

\[
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \left( \| x_1 - m_1 - v_1 + \bar{v}_1 \|_R^{-1}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| x_1 - \tilde{m}_1 \|_P^{-1}_1 \right)^2
\]

(24)

which is equivalent to (19) with

\[
A_i = J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right), \quad b_i = a_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) - J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right)x_{i-1}^{(i)}
\]

\[
H_i = J_{h_i}\left(x_i^{(i)}\right), \quad e_i = h_i\left(x_i^{(i)}\right) - J_{h_i}\left(x_i^{(i)}\right)x_i^{(i)}.
\]

(25)

The precise expressions of \( B_i \) and \( d_i \) depend on our choice of sparsity. When \( q_i \) is sparse, the expressions are given by

\[
B_i = J_{b_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right), \quad d_i = a_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) - J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right)x_{i-1}^{(i)}
\]

which needs the same computations as in (20). Thus, we can solve the minimization problem in (7a) by iteratively linearizing the nonlinearities and then by applying KS. This turns out to be mathematically equivalent to applying GN to the batch problem as we did in Section III-C. The steps of the GN-IEKS method are summarized in Algorithm 2.

### C. Levenberg–Marquardt IEKS

There also exists a connection between the LM and a modified version of IEKS. The LM-IEKS method [10] is based on replacing the minimization of the approximate cost function in (24) by a regularized minimization of the form

\[
x_{1,T}^* = \arg \min_{x_{1,T}} \frac{1}{2} \| y_i - h_i\left(x_i^{(i)}\right) + J_{h_i}\left(x_i^{(i)}\right)(x_i - x_i^{(i)}) \|_R^{-1}^2
\]

\[
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{T} \| x_i - a_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) + J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right)(x_i - x_{i-1}^{(i)}) \|_Q^{-1}^2
\]

\[
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{T} \| x_i - h_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) - d_i - v_i - \bar{v}_{i-1}) \|_R^{-1}^2
\]

\[
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \left( \| x_1 - m_1 - v_1 + \bar{v}_1 \|_R^{-1}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| x_1 - \tilde{m}_1 \|_P^{-1}_1 \right)^2
\]

(24)

which is equivalent to (19) with

\[
A_i = J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right), \quad b_i = a_i\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) - J_{a_i}\left(x_{i-1}^{(i)}\right)x_{i-1}^{(i)}
\]

\[
H_i = J_{h_i}\left(x_i^{(i)}\right), \quad e_i = h_i\left(x_i^{(i)}\right) - J_{h_i}\left(x_i^{(i)}\right)x_i^{(i)}.
\]

(25)
Algorithm 3: LM-IEKS

Input: $y_t, B_t, d_t, a_t, h_t, R_t, Q_t, v(k), \bar{q}(k), m_1$ and $P_1; S_t, \gamma, \lambda, ~\alpha.$

Output: $x_{1:T}^*$.

1. set $i \leftarrow 0$ and start from a suitable initial guess $x_{1:T}^{(0)}$;
2. while not converged or $i < I_{\text{max}}$ do
   3. linearise $a_t$ and $h_t$ according to (23);
   4. compute $\hat{A}_t, \hat{Q}_t, \hat{h}_t$ by (20);
   5. update $x_{t}^{(i+1)}$ by (28) based on the augmented KS;
   6. if $\theta(x_{1:T}^{(i+1)}) < \theta(x_{1:T}^{(i)})$ then
      7. $\lambda(t) \leftarrow \lambda(t)/\alpha; \ i \leftarrow i + 1;
   8. else
      9. $\lambda(t) \leftarrow \lambda(t)/\alpha;$
10. end
11. end
12. return $x_{1:T}^* = x_{1:T}^{(i)}$.

\[
\begin{align*}
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| x_t - a_t(x_{t-1}^{(i)} + J_{h_t}(x_{t-1}^{(i)})(x_{t-1} - x_t^{(i)})) \right\|_{Q_t}^2 \\
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| x_t - B_t x_{t-1} - d_t - v_t + \bar{\eta}_t \right\|_2^2 \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \left\| x_1 - m_1 \right\|_{P_1}^2 \\
+ \frac{\lambda(t)}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| x_t - x_t^{(i)} \right\|_{|S_t|}^2 \\
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \left\| x_1 - m_1 - v_1 + \frac{\bar{\eta}_1}{\gamma} \right\|_2^2
\end{align*}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (27)

where we have assumed that $S_t^{(i)} = \text{diag}(S_1^{(i)}, \ldots, S_T^{(i)})$. Similar to GN-IEKS, when $B_t$ and $d_t$ are nonzero, we need to build a new state-space model in order to have only one dynamic model. Following [10], the regularization can be implemented by defining an additional measurement $z_t = x_t^{(i)}$ with a noise covariance $\Sigma_t^{(i)} = S_t^{(i)}/\lambda(t)$. Using (20) and (25), we have the augmented state-space model

\[
p(x_t | x_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_t | \hat{A}_t x_{t-1} + \hat{h}_t, \hat{Q}_t) \\
p(y_t | x_t) = \mathcal{N}(y_t | H_t x_t + e_t, R_t) \\
p(z_t | x_t) = \mathcal{N}(z_t | x_t, \Sigma_t^{(i)})
\]  \hspace{1cm} (28)

which provides the minimum of the cost function as the KS solution. By combining this with $\lambda(t)$ adaptation and iterating, we can implement the LM algorithm for the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem using the recursive smoother (see [10]). See Algorithm 3 for more details.

D. Discussion

All the methods discussed above, namely, augmented KS, GN-IEKS, and LM-IEKS, provide efficient ways to solve the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem. When we leverage the Markov structure of the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem arising in the mADMM iteration, we can significantly reduce the computation burden. In particular, when functions $a_t(x_{t-1})$ and $h_t(x_t)$ are affine, the augmented KS method can be used in the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem [see (19)]. Both GN-IEKS and LM-IEKS are based on the use of linearisation of the functions $a_t(x_{t-1})$ and $h_t(x_t)$, and they work well for most nonlinear minimization problems. However, when the Jacobians [e.g., $J_a(x_{t-1})$ or $J_h(x_t)$ in (23)] are rank-deficient, the GN-IEKS method cannot be used. As a robust extension of GN-IEKS, LM-IEKS significantly improves the performance of GN-IEKS. It should be noted that when the regularization term is not used in LM-IEKS [when $\lambda(t) = 0$], then LM-IEKS reduces to GN-IEKS [10].

V. Convergence Analysis

In this section, we prove that under mild assumptions and a proper choice of the penalty parameter, our KS-mADMM, GN-IEKS-mADMM, and LM-IEKS-mADMM methods converge to a stationary point of the original problem. Although the convergence of the mADMM has already been proven, the existing results strongly depend on convexity assumptions or Lipschitz continuity conditions (see [52]--[54]). In the analysis, we require neither the convexity of the objective function nor Lipschitz continuity conditions. Instead, we use a milder condition on the amenability. This allows us to establish the convergence of the three methods.

For the case when the functions $a_t(x_{t-1})$ and $h_t(x_t)$ are affine [see (2)], we have the following lemma.

**Lemma 1:** Let $\{x_{1:T}^{(k)}, w_{1:T}^{(k)}, v_{1:T}^{(k)}, \eta_{1:T}^{(k)}\}$ be the iterates generated by (7). Then, we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\left\| \left[ v^{(k+1)} \right] - \left[ v^* \right] \right\|_{\Omega}^2 \\
\leq \left\| \left[ v^{(k)} \right] - \left[ v^* \right] \right\|_{\Omega}^2 - \left\| \left[ v^{(k)} \right] - \left[ v^{(k+1)} \right] \right\|_{\Omega}^2
\end{align*}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (29)

where $\Omega = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I + G^T G & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\gamma \end{bmatrix}$ and $G = \begin{bmatrix} G_1 \\ \vdots \\ G_T \end{bmatrix}$.

**Proof:** See Appendix A.

We will then establish the convergence rate of the proposed method in terms of the iteration number.

**Theorem 1 (Convergence of KS-mADMM):** Let $Q_t$ and $P_1$ be positive semidefinite matrices. Then, the sequence $\{x_{1:T}^{(k)}, w_{1:T}^{(k)}, v_{1:T}^{(k)}, \eta_{1:T}^{(k)}\}$ generated by KS-mADMM converges to a stationary point $(x_{1:T}^*, w_{1:T}^*, v_{1:T}^*, \eta_{1:T}^*)$ with the rate $o(1/k)$.

**Proof:** The proof is based on the convexity of the function. Because of the equivalence between mADMM and KS-mADMM, we start by establishing the convergence of mADMM. When $Q_t$ and $P_1$ are positive semidefinite, the function in (5) is convex. Because of $\begin{bmatrix} \Phi & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \end{bmatrix}^T = 0$, we can write $x$ and $w$ into a function $\Xi(\xi)$ in the batch form [52].

For simplicity of notation, we define $s = [v \ \eta]^T$. Using Lemma 1, we obtain

\[
\Xi(\xi^*) - \Xi(\xi^{(k)}) + (\xi^* - s^{(k)})^T F(\xi^*) \\
+ \left\| s^* - s^{(k)} \right\|_{\Omega}^2 \geq \left\| s^* - s^{(k+1)} \right\|_{\Omega}^2
\]  \hspace{1cm} (30)
where \( \xi \) and \( F(\xi) \) are defined in Appendix A [see (37)]. We sum the inequality (30) from 0 to \( k \) and divide each term by \( k + 1 \). Since \( \|s^* - s^{(k+1)}\|^2_\Omega \geq 0 \), we then have

\[
\frac{1}{k + 1} \sum_{i=0}^{k} \Xi(\xi^{(k)}) - \Xi(\xi^*) + \left( \frac{1}{k + 1} \sum_{i=0}^{k} \xi^{(k)} - \xi^* \right)^T F(\xi^*) \\
\leq \frac{1}{k + 1} \|s^* - s^{(0)}\|^2_\Omega.
\]

(31)

Let \( \xi^{(k)} = (1/(k+1))\xi^{(k)} \) and \( \xi^* = (1/(k+1))\xi^* \). Because of the convexity of \( \Xi \), we further write (31) as

\[
\Xi(\xi^{(k)}) - \Xi(\xi^*) + \left( \frac{1}{k + 1} \sum_{i=0}^{k} \xi^{(k)} - \xi^* \right)^T F(\xi^*) \\
\leq \frac{1}{k + 1} \|s^* - s^{(0)}\|^2_\Omega.
\]

(32)

The convergence rate \( o(1/k) \) of mADMM is thus established. As batch mADMM is equivalent to KS-mADMM, then the sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) and the sequence \( \{x_{1:T}, w_{1:T}, v_{1:T}, \eta_{1:T}\} \) are identical. This concludes the proof.

When the functions \( a_i(x_{t-1}) \) and \( h_i(x_t) \) are nonlinear, we have the function

\[
s(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - h(x)\|_R^{-1} + \frac{1}{2} \|m - a(x)\|_Q^{-1}.
\]

(33)

Definition 1: The function \( s(x) \) is strongly amenable [55] at \( x \) when the condition

\[
[ R^{-1/2} J_B; Q^{-1/2} J_a ]^T z = 0
\]

is satisfied only when \( z = 0 \).

Let \( s(x) \) be strongly amenable. Then, \( s(x) \) will be prox-regular [56]. We are now ready for introducing the following lemma.

Lemma 2 (Bounded and Nonincreasing Sequence): Assume that \( \delta_i(\Phi^T \Phi) > 0 \) and \( s(x) \) is strongly amenable. Then, there exists \( \gamma > 0 \) such that sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) is bounded and nonincreasing.

Proof: See Appendix B.

Next, we present the main theoretical result.

Theorem 2 (Convergence of GN-IEKS-mADMM): Let the assumptions in Lemma 2 be satisfied. Then, there exists \( \gamma > 0 \) such that the sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) generated by GN-IEKS-mADMM locally converges to a local minimum.

Proof: By Lemma 2, the sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) is bounded and nonincreasing. Based on our paper [16], the \( x \)-subproblem has a local minimum \( x^* \), \( w \) and \( v \) subproblems are convex [57]. We then conclude that the iterative sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) locally converges to a local minimum \( \{x^*, w^*, v^*, \eta^*\} \). According to [8], GN is equivalent to IEKS. Thus, we deduce that the iterative sequence \( \{x_{1:T}, w_{1:T}, v_{1:T}, \eta_{1:T}\} \) is convergent to a local minimum \( \{x^*, w^*, v^*, \eta^*\} \).

Lemma 3 (Convergence of LM): Assume that the norm of Hessian \( H_0(x) \) is bounded by a positive constant \( \kappa = \max_i [\gamma \delta_i(\Phi^T \Phi), \lambda^{(0)} \delta_i(S^{(0)}^{-1})] \). Then, LM is locally (linearly) convergent. The convergence is quadratic when \( \kappa \to 0 \).

Proof: See Appendix C.

Theorem 3 (Convergence of LM-IEKS-mADMM): Let the assumptions of Lemmas 2 and 3 be satisfied. Then, there exists \( \lambda^{(0)}, \gamma > 0 \) such that the sequence \( \{x_{1:T}, w_{1:T}, v_{1:T}, \eta_{1:T}\} \) generated by LM-IEKS-mADMM converges to a local minimum \( \{x^*, w^*, v^*, \eta^*\} \).

Proof: Similar to Theorem 2, we use Lemma 2 to establish that the sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) is bounded and nonincreasing. Due to the convexity, the \( w \) and \( v \) subproblems have a local minimum. By Lemma 3, the sequence \( x^{(k)} \) generated by LM converges to \( x^* \). Then, the sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) locally converges to a minimum \( \{x^*, w^*, v^*, \eta^*\} \) since the sequence \( \{x^{(k)}, w^{(k)}, v^{(k)}, \eta^{(k)}\} \) generated by LM is identical to \( \{x_{1:T}, w_{1:T}, v_{1:T}, \eta_{1:T}\} \) generated by LM-IEKS [8], [10].

VI. NUMERICAL EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we experimentally evaluate the proposed methods in a selection of different applications, including linear target tracking problems, multisensor range measurement problems, ship trajectory tracking, audio restoration, and autonomous vehicle tracking. As for the convergence criteria, we can easily verify that the assumptions for convergence are satisfied for the linear/affine examples in Sections VI-A–VI-E. In addition, the nonlinear coordinated turn model in Section VI-D also satisfies assumptions for convergence. However, for the distance measurement in Section VI-B, it is hard to establish strong amenability although empirically the convergence occurs.

A. Linear Target Tracking Problems

In the first experiment, we consider simulated tracking of a moving target (such as car) with the Wiener velocity model [6] as the dynamic model and with noisy location measurements. In the simulation, the process noise \( q_c \) was set to be 0 with probability 0.8 at every step \( t \). State \( x_t \) has the location \( (x_{t,1}, x_{t,2}) \) and the velocities \( (x_{t,3}, x_{t,4}) \). The measurement model matrix and the measurement noise covariance are

\[
H_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad R_t = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix}
\]

The transition matrix and the process noise covariance are

\[
A_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \Delta t \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Q_t = q_c \begin{bmatrix} \Delta^2 t/2 & \Delta t^2/2 & 0 & 0 \\ \Delta t^2/2 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta t & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \Delta^2 t \end{bmatrix}
\]

We have \( \Delta t = 0.1, q_c = 0.5, \sigma = 0.3, T = 100, m_1 = [0.1 \ 0 \ 0.1 \ 0]^T \), and \( P_1 \) is an identity matrix. We set the matrix \( G_{e,t} \) to an identity matrix and use the parameters \( \gamma = 1, \mu = 1, \) and \( K_{\max} = 50 \).
We define the estimation error as

$$x_{\text{err}} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| d^t - x^t_{\text{true}} \right\|_2}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left\| x^t_{\text{true}} \right\|_2}$$

where $x^t_{\text{true}}$ is the ground truth. The estimation results are plotted in Fig. 1, where the circles denote the noisy measurements and the blue dashed line denotes the true state. As we can see, the KS-mADMM estimate (black line) is much closer to the ground truth than the KS estimate (red dashed line), which is also reflected by a lower error.

Recall that the difference in batch and recursive ADMM running time is dominated by the $x_{1:T}$-subproblem. Fig. 2 demonstrates how the running time (sec) grows when $T$ increases. Despite being mathematically equivalent, mADMM and KS-mADMM have very different running times. The running times of mADMM and proximal ADMM (prox-ADMM) have a similar growth rate; whereas, KS-mADMM has a growth rate that resembles a plain KS. Due to limited memory, we cannot report the results of the batch estimation methods (prox-ADMM and mADMM) when $T > 10^4$. At $T = 10^4$, the running times of KS, KS-mADMM, prox-ADMM, and mADMM were 0.34, 1.92, 6284, and 9646 s, respectively. The proposed method is computationally inexpensive, which makes it suitable for solving real-world applications, such as the marine vessel tracking in Section VI-C.

B. Multisensor Range Measurement Problems

In this experiment, we consider a multisensor range measurement problem, where we have short periods of movement with regular stops. This problem frequently appears in many surveillance systems [3], [6]. The state $\mathbf{x}_t$ contains the position $(x_{t,1}, x_{t,2})$ and the velocities $(x_{t,3}, x_{t,4})$. The measurement dynamic model for sensor $n \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ is given by

$$h_n^v(\mathbf{x}_t) = \sqrt{(x_{t,2} - s_{y,n}^v)^2 + (x_{t,1} - s_{x,n}^v)^2}$$

where $(s_{x,n}^v, s_{y,n}^v)$ is the position of sensor $n$. The transition function $a_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})$ is

$$a_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{t-1}. \quad (35)$$

The covariances are $\mathbf{R}_t = \text{diag}(0.2^2, 0.2^2)$ and $\mathbf{Q}_t = \text{diag}(0.01, 0.01, 0.1, 0.1)$. We set $\Delta t = 0.1, T = 60, (s_{x,1}^v, s_{y,1}^v) = (0, -0.5), (s_{x,2}^v, s_{y,2}^v) = (0.5, 0.6), (s_{x,3}^v, s_{y,3}^v) = (0.5, 0.6), \mathbf{m}_1 = [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0], \text{ and } \mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{I}/10$. We assume the target has many stops, which means the velocities $x_{t,3}$ and $x_{t,4}$ are sparse. We also set $\mathbf{G}_{e,t} = [0 \ 1 \ 1]$, and use the parameters $\gamma = 1, \mu = 1, K_{\text{max}} = 50, \text{ and } J_{\text{max}} = 5$. We plot the velocity variable $x_{t,3}$ corresponding to the time step $t$ in Fig. 3, which indicates that our method (black line) can generate much more sparse results than the IEKS estimate (red dashed line).

Fig. 4 shows the relative error $x_{\text{err}}$ as a function of the iteration number. The values of $x_{\text{err}}$ generated by the regularization methods are below those generated by IEKS [1]. It also shows that the GN-mADMM, GN-IEKS-mADMM, LM-mADMM, and LM-IEKS-mADMM can find the optimal values in around 50 iterations. IEKS is the fastest method, but the relative error is the highest due to the lack of the sparsity prior (i.e., $\mu = 0$). GN-mADMM and GN-IEKS-mADMM have the same convergence results (as they are equivalent), while the latter uses less running time. Similarly, LM-mADMM and LM-IEKS-mADMM have the same convergence results, but LM-IEKS-mADMM needs less time to obtain the result than LM-mADMM. When the number of time steps $T$ is moderate, all the running times are acceptable. But
when \( T \) is extremely large, the proposed methods provide a massive advantage.

Fig. 5 demonstrates how the running time (sec) grows when \( T \) increases. The proposed methods are compared to the state-of-the-art methods, including the prox-ADMM [46], mADMM [47], and IEKS [1]. Despite being mathematically equivalent, GN-mADMM and GN-IEKS-mADMM, LM-mADMM, and LM-IEKS-mADMM have very different running times. GN-IEKS-mADMM and LM-IEKS-mADMM are more efficient than the batch methods. Due to limited memory, we cannot report the results of the batch methods when \( T > 10^4 \). It is reasonable to conclude that in general, the proposed methods are competitive for extremely large-scale tracking and estimation problems. The proposed approaches are computationally inexpensive, which makes them suitable for solving real-world applications, such as ship trajectory-tracking in the next section.

C. Marine Vessel Tracking

In this experiment, we utilize the Wiener velocity model [6] with a sparse noise assumption to track a marine vessel trajectory. The latitude, longitude, speed, and course of the vessel have been captured by automatic identification system (AIS) equipment, collected by Danish Maritime Authority. Similar applications can be found in [5] and [39]. The state of the ship is measured at time intervals of 1 min. Matrices \( H_t, A_t, Q_t, \) and \( R_t \) are the same with the settings in Section VI-A with

\[
\Delta t = 1, \ q_c = 1, \ \sigma = 0.3, \ T = 100, \ m_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T, \text{and} \ P_1 = 100I. \text{We assume the process noise} \ q_t \text{is sparse, set} \ G_{q,t} \text{to an identity matrix, and use the parameters } \gamma = 1, \ \mu = 1, \text{and} \ K_{\text{max}} = 100. \text{The measurement data consist of 100 time points of the vessel locations.}

Our method obtains the position (latitude and longitude) estimates as shown in Fig. 6. Fig. 7 shows that our method has sparser process noise than that estimated by the KS [1]. We then highlight the computational advantage of our method. The difference in running time is dominated by the \( x_1:T \)-subproblem. The running times of KS, prox-ADMM, mADMM, and KS-mADMM were 0.34, 174, 172, and 5.63 s, respectively. The running times of mADMM and prox-ADMM are similar whereas KS-mADMM has a smaller running time that resembles the plain KS.

D. Autonomous Vehicle Tracking

To further show how our methods can speed up larger scale real-world problems, we apply GN-IEKS-mADMM to a vehicle tracking problem using real-world data. Global positioning system (GPS) data were collected in urban streets and roads around Helsinki, Tuusula, and Vantaa, Finland [58]. The urban environment contained many stops to traffic lights, crossings, turns, and various other situations. We ran the experiment using a coordinate turn model [1], where the state at time step \( t \) had the positions \((x_{t,1}, x_{t,2})\), the velocities \((x_{t,3}, x_{t,4})\),
and the angular velocity \( x_{t,5} \). The number of time points \( T \) was 6865. We use the parameters \( \gamma = 0.1 \), \( \mu = 1 \), \( K_{\text{max}} = 300 \), \( I_{\text{max}} = 5 \), \( m_1 = [4.5 \ 13.5 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0] \), and \( P_1 = \text{diag}(50, 50, 50, 50, 0.01) \). We utilized the matrix

\[
G_{r,t} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 
\end{bmatrix}
\]

E. Audio Signal Restoration

The proposed technique can be readily applied to the problem of noise reduction in audio signals. We adopt a Gabor regression model [19]

\[
y(\tau) = \sum_{m=0}^{M/2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} c_{m,n} g_{m,n}(\tau) + r(\tau), \quad \tau = 0, \ldots, T - 1
\]

where signals are represented as a weighted sum of the Gabor atoms \( g_{m,n}(\tau) = w_n(\tau) \exp(2\pi i m/M \tau) \). Terms \( w_n(\tau) \) correspond to a window function with bounded support centred at time instants \( \tau_n \) (windows are placed so that the time axis is with tiled evenly). Sparsity is promoted through the \( L_1^2 \) pairwise grouping pattern described in Section II: \( \sum_{m,n} \mu_{m,n} \| c_{m,n} \|_2 \). The real representation of complex coefficients \( c_{m,n} \) used in [19] is adopted. This batch problem is restated in terms of a state-space model: signal \( y \) is separated into \( P \) chunks \( y_i \) of length \( L \) and state vectors \( x_i = [c_{2i-1}; c_{2i-1}; c_{2i}]^T \) are defined, \( c_i \) being the subvector associated to each frame. Let \( H_0 \) be a matrix containing the nonzero values of the Gabor basis functions \( g_{0,0}, \ldots, g_{M/2,0} \) as columns. Thus, atoms in subsequent frames are time-shifted replicas of this basic set and \([y - Dc]^2\) (\( D \) a dictionary matrix containing all atoms) can be replaced by \( \sum_{i=1}^{P} \|y_i - H_i x_i\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{P} \|x_i - A_i x_i - 1\|^2 \), with \( H_0 = [H_0 \ H_0 \ H_0] \) and \( A_i = [0 \ 0 \ 0; 0 \ 0 \ 0; 1 \ 0 \ 0] \). Terms \( H_0 \) and \( H_i \) are truncated versions of \( H_0 \) corresponding to the contribution of the adjacent overlapping frames.

The algorithm is tested on a \(~3\) s long glockenspiel excerpt sampled at 22050 [Hz] and contaminated with artificial background noise with signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) 5dB. Experiments are carried out in an Intel Core i7 @ 2.50 GHz, 16-GB RAM, with parameters \( \gamma = 5 \), \( \mu = 2.6 \), and \( K_{\text{max}} = 500 \), and a window length \( L = 512 \). Kalman gain matrices are precomputed. Reflecting the power spectrum of typical audio signals, which decays with frequency, penalization is made frequency-dependent by setting \( \mu_{m,n} = \mu f(m) \), with \( f(m) \) a decreasing modulating function (e.g., a Butterworth filter gain), in a similar fashion to [18]. Coefficients are initialised at 0. The average output SNR is 12.4 with an average running time of 64.6 s in 20 realizations. Fig. 10 shows the visual reconstruction results.

In comparison, the Gibbs sampling schemes for models (e.g., [19]) yield noisier restorations with comparable computing times. We analyzed the same example using the Gibbs sampler with 500 iterations, 250 burn-in periods. Hyperparameters and initial values are chosen to ensure a fair comparison with the KS-mADMM method (unfavorable initialization may induce longer convergence times). With a runtime of \(~180\) s, the Gibbs algorithm yields an output SNR of \(~15\) dB. The perceptual evaluation of audio quality (PEAQ) [59], a measure that incorporates psycho-acoustic criteria to assess audio signals, is adopted. The objective difference grade (ODG) indicator derived from PEAQ is used to compare the reconstructions with respect to the clean reference signal, obtaining ODG = −3.910 for clean signal against noisy input, ODG = −3.846 for clean signal against the Gibbs reconstruction, and ODG = −3.637 for clean signal against
KS-mADMM reconstruction (the closer to 0, the better). Despite the lower SNR (12.4 dB), the KS-ADMM reconstruction sounds cleaner (i.e., has fewer audio artifacts) than its Gibbs counterpart, which is consistent with the ODG values obtained. Devising appropriate temporal evolution models for the audio synthesis coefficients over time and investigating self-adaptive schemes for the estimation of the parameters (here, tuned empirically) are topics of future research.

VII. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this article, we have presented efficient smoothing-and-splitting methods for solving regularized autonomous tracking and state estimation problems. We formulated the problem as a generalized $L_2$-penalized dynamic group Lasso minimization problem. The problem can be solved using batch methods when the number of time steps is moderate. For the case with a large number of time steps, new KS-mADMM, GN-IEKS-mADMM, and LM-IEKS-mADMM methods were developed. We also proved the convergence of the proposed methods. We applied the developed methods to simulated tracking, real-world tracking, and audio signal restoration problems, where methods resulted in improved localization and estimation performance and significantly reduced computation load.

A disadvantage of the smoothing-and-splitting methods is that although the methods significantly improve the tracking and estimation performance, their reliability depends on user-defined penalty parameters [e.g., the parameter $\gamma$ in (6)]. See [46] and [47] for further details on choosing the appropriate values of the parameters. The use of adaptive penalty parameters may improve the performance in dynamic systems, even while stronger conditions of convergence need to be guaranteed [60]. It would be interesting to develop fully automated solvers with adaptive parameters. The convergence and the convergence rate of our methods are based on the Bayesian smoothers and ADMM, and we have established the convergence rate of the convex case. Possible future work includes discussing the convergence rate for nonconvex variants.

Although we only consider the autonomous tracking and state estimation problems in this article, it is possible to apply our framework to a wide class of control problems. For example, in linear optimal control problems, we could introduce splitting variables to decompose the nonsmooth terms and then use the Riccati equations to compute the subproblems arising in the optimal control problems [61]. In cooperative control of multiple target systems [62]–[64], we can consider a reformulation of dynamic models of group targets into classes with different characteristics. Based on the framework, we address the subproblems in implementing optimization-based methods such as receding horizon methods [63]. The proposed framework can be extended to other variable splitting methods [48] as well as other recursive smoothers [1]. Future work also includes developing other variants, for example, sigma-point-based variable splitting methods.

APPENDIX A

PROOF OF LEMMA 1

For proving Lemma 1, we define $\xi = [x \ w]^T$ and then write variables $x$ and $w$ into the function $\Xi(\xi)$, which is

$$\Xi(\xi) = \frac{1}{2} ||y - Hx - e||^2_{R_{-1}} + \frac{1}{2} ||m - \Phi x - b||^2_{Q_{-1}} + \mu ||w||_2. \quad (36)$$

Using the optimality conditions of the subproblems in (7), we can write

$$\Xi(\xi) = \Xi(\xi^{(k+1)}) + (\xi - \xi^{(k+1)})^T$$

$$\times \left( \begin{array}{c} \Phi & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{array} \right) \eta^{(k)} + \gamma \left( \begin{array}{c} \Phi & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{array} \right)^T \chi^{(k+1)} - \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G \end{array} \right) v^{(k)} - \left( \begin{array}{c} d \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \right) \geq 0 \quad (37a)$$

$$\left( v - v^{(k+1)} \right)^T \left( - \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G \end{array} \right)^T \eta^{(k)} - \gamma \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G \end{array} \right)^T \chi^{(k+1)} - \left( \begin{array}{c} d \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \right) \geq 0 \quad (37b)$$

$$\left( \eta - \eta^{(k+1)} \right)^T \left( - \left( \begin{array}{c} \Phi & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{array} \right) z^{(k+1)} - \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G \end{array} \right) v^{(k+1)} - \left( \begin{array}{c} d \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \right) + \frac{1}{\gamma} (\eta^{(k+1)} - \eta^{(k)}) \geq 0. \quad (37c)$$

For simplicity of notation, we also define

$$\xi = [\xi \ v \ \eta]^T$$

$$F(\xi) = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \eta^{(k+1)} - \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G \end{array} \right) \chi^{(k+1)} + \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ G \end{array} \right) v^{(k+1)} + \left( \begin{array}{c} d \\ 0 \end{array} \right). \quad (38)$$

We group all the variables $\xi$, $v$, and $\eta$ into a single vector $\xi$ and then rewrite (37) as follows:

$$\Xi(\xi) = \Xi(\xi^{(k+1)}) + [\xi - \xi^{(k+1)}]^T$$

For proving Lemma 1, we define $\xi = [x \ w]^T$ and then write variables $x$ and $w$ into the function $\Xi(\xi)$, which is
Combining (40) and (41), we can derive (39) as

\[
\begin{align*}
F(\xi) + \gamma \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ I \\ G \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} (v^{(k)} - v^{(k+1)}) \\
\gamma \begin{bmatrix} I \\ G \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} \Phi \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} (v^{(k)} - v^{(k+1)})
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\geq 0
\]

\[
\Xi(\xi) - \Xi(\xi^{(k+1)}) + \left[ \xi - \xi^{(k+1)} \right]^{\top} F(\xi)
\]

\[
+ \gamma \left[ \xi - \xi^{(k+1)} \right]^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ I \\ G \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} (v^{(k)} - v^{(k+1)})
\]

\[
\geq 0
\]

(39)

Since the mapping \( F(\xi) \) is affine with a skew-symmetric matrix, it is monotonic [52]. Then, we have the inequality

\[
\Xi(\xi^{(k+1)}) - \Xi(\xi^*) + (\xi^{(k+1)} - \xi^*)^{\top} F(\xi^{(k+1)})
\]

\[
\geq \Xi(\xi^{(k+1)}) - \Xi(\xi^*) + (\xi^{(k+1)} - \xi^*)^{\top} F(\xi^*) \geq 0.
\]

(40)

Meanwhile, using (7d), the inequality can be written as

\[
(\eta^{(k)} - \eta^{(k+1)})^{\top} \left( - \begin{bmatrix} I \\ G \end{bmatrix} \right) (v^{(k)} - v^{(k+1)}) \geq 0.
\]

(41)

Combining (40) and (41), we can derive (39) as

\[
\left( \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^* \\ \eta^* \end{bmatrix} \right)^{\top} \gamma \begin{bmatrix} I & G^{\top} G & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} I \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k+1)} \\ \eta^{(k+1)} \end{bmatrix} \right)
\]

\[
\geq \gamma (v^{(k)} - v^{(k+1)})^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} I \\ G \end{bmatrix} (v^{(k)} - v^{(k+1)})
\]

\[
\geq (\eta^{(k)} - \eta^{(k+1)})^{\top} \left( - \begin{bmatrix} I \\ G \end{bmatrix} \right) (v^{(k)} - v^{(k+1)}) \geq 0.
\]

(42)

Let \( \Omega = \begin{bmatrix} I & G^{\top} G & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} I \end{bmatrix} \). We then conclude that

\[
\left\| \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^* \\ \eta^* \end{bmatrix} \right\|_{\Omega}^2
\]

\[
\geq \left\| \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^* \\ \eta^* \end{bmatrix} \right\|_{\Omega}^2 + \left\| \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k+1)} \\ \eta^{(k+1)} \end{bmatrix} \right\|_{\Omega}^2
\]

\[
+ 2 \left( \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^* \\ \eta^* \end{bmatrix} \right)^{\top} \Omega \left( \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k+1)} \\ \eta^{(k+1)} \end{bmatrix} \right)
\]

\[
\geq \left\| \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k+1)} \\ \eta^{(k+1)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^* \\ \eta^* \end{bmatrix} \right\|_{\Omega}^2 + \left\| \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k)} \\ \eta^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v^{(k+1)} \\ \eta^{(k+1)} \end{bmatrix} \right\|_{\Omega}^2.
\]

(43)

**APPENDIX B**

**PROOF OF LEMMA 2**

To simplify the notation, we replace the \((k+1):\) iteration with the \(+:th\) iteration and drop the iteration counter \( k \) in this proof. Due to the strongly amenability, \( s(x) \) is prox-regular with a positive constant \( M \). Now, we compute

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\gamma}(x, w, v; \eta) - \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}(x^{(+)}, w^{(+)}, v; \eta)
\]

\[
= s(x) - s\left(x^{(+)\top} \right) + \left( \eta, \Phi x^{(+)\top} - \Phi x \right)
\]

\[
+ \gamma \left( \Phi x^{(+)\top} - d - v \right)^{\top} \Phi x^{(+)\top} - \Phi x
\]

\[
+ \frac{\gamma}{2} \left\| \Phi x^{(+)\top} - \Phi x \right\|^{2}
\]

\[
+ g(w) - g\left(w^{(+)\top} \right) + \left( \eta, w^{(+)\top} - w \right)
\]

\[
+ \gamma \left( w^{(+)\top} - Gv \right)^{\top} w^{(+)\top} - w
\]

\[
+ \gamma \frac{1}{2} \left( w^{(+)\top} - w \right)^{2} + \gamma \frac{1}{2} \left( w^{(+)\top} - w \right)^{2}
\]

(44)

where \( \eta = \text{vec}(\eta, \eta) \). We then have

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\gamma}(x^{(+)\top}, w^{(+)\top}, v^{(+)\top}; \eta^{(+)\top}) - \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}(x, w, v; \eta)
\]

\[
< \frac{1}{\gamma} \left\| \eta^{(+)\top} - \eta \right\|^{2} + M - \gamma \delta_{\pm}(\Phi^{\top} \Phi) \left\| x^{(+)\top} - x \right\|^{2}
\]

\[
+ \gamma \frac{1}{2} \left( w^{(+)\top} - w \right)^{2}
\]

(45)

which will be non-negative provided \( \gamma > (M/\delta_{\pm}(\Phi^{\top} \Phi)) > 0 \) is satisfied. In particular, when \( \Phi = I, \delta_{\pm}(\Phi^{\top} \Phi) = 1 \).

In our case, \( \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}(x^{(k), \top}, w^{(k), \top}, v^{(k), \top}; \eta^{(k), \top}) \) is upper bounded by \( \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}(x^{(0), \top}, w^{(0), \top}, v^{(0), \top}; \eta^{(0), \top}) \), and is also lower bounded by \( \mathcal{L}_{\gamma}(x^{(k), \top}, w^{(k), \top}, v^{(k), \top}; \eta^{(k), \top}) > s(x^{(k)} + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{g=1}^{N_{g}} \mu \| w_{g, t} \|_{2} \). Thus, we obtain the conclusion.

**APPENDIX C**

**PROOF OF LEMMA 3**

We use the smallest nonzero eigenvalue of \( \Phi^{\top} \Phi \) and \( S^{-1} \) to yield the inequality

\[
\| J_{0} J_{0} (x^{(i)}) \| \geq \max \left\{ \chi \delta_{\pm}(\Phi^{\top} \Phi), \lambda^{(i)} \delta_{\pm} \left( \left[ S^{(i)} \right]^{-1} \right) \right\}
\]

(46)

where

\[
J_{0} = \left[ R^{-\frac{1}{2}} J_{0}(x) \quad Q^{-\frac{1}{2}} J_{0}(x) \quad \gamma^{\frac{1}{2}} \Phi \quad \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} S^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right].
\]

We then have

\[
\| x^{(i+1)} - x^{*} \| \leq \frac{M}{2} \left\| J_{0}^{\top} J_{0}(x^{(i)}) \right\|^{-1} \left\| x^{(i)} - x^{*} \right\|^{2}
\]

\[
+ \left\| J_{0}^{\top} J_{0}(x^{(i)}) \right\|^{-1} H_{0}(x^{(i)}) \left\| x^{(i)} - x^{*} \right\|.
\]

(47)
When $\|H_{\nu}(\mathbf{x})\| \leq \kappa$ and $\kappa \to 0$, the convergence is quadratic. The linear convergence can be established when the inequality $\left\| \left( J_{\nu}^1 \mathbf{J}_\nu^0(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right)^{-1} H_{\nu}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right\| \leq \kappa / \max (\gamma_{\nu} (\Phi, \Phi), \lambda_{\nu} (\delta_\nu (S^{(i)}))) < 1$ is satisfied.

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