

1 Hidden Input Observability

Considering a dynamic system \mathcal{S}

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = Ax(t) + Bu(t) + Dw(t) \quad (1)$$

$$y(t) = Cx(t) \quad (2)$$

$$x(0) = x_0 \quad (3)$$

where x, u, w and y map $[0, T]$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^{m'}, \mathbb{R}^m$ and \mathbb{R}^p , respectively, and A, B, C, D are matrices of suitable dimensions. The closed form solution for y is

$$y_w(t) = C \int_0^t \exp(A(t-\tau))(Bu(\tau) + Dw(\tau)) d\tau \quad (4)$$

Definition 1. If for a system \mathcal{S} the implication

$$y_w(t) = y_{\hat{w}}(t) \quad \forall t \in [0, T] \quad \Rightarrow \quad w = \hat{w} \quad \text{a.e.} \quad (5)$$

holds, \mathcal{S} is called *hidden input observable*.

Due to linearity a system is hidden input observable if and only if

$$\Delta y_w(t) := C \int_0^t \exp(A(t-\tau))Dw(\tau) d\tau = 0 \quad \forall t \in [0, T] \quad \Rightarrow \quad w = 0 \quad \text{a.e.} \quad (6)$$

For the sake of simplicity we will consider only $p = 1$. With the definition of the operators

$$I^t : L^1([0, T]) \rightarrow l^2 \quad , \quad w \mapsto \left(\frac{1}{k!} \int_0^t (t-\tau)^k w(\tau) d\tau \right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0} \quad (7)$$

and

$$\Sigma : l^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p \quad , \quad (s_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0} \mapsto \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} CA^k Ds_k \quad (8)$$

we see that

$$\Delta y_w(t) = \Sigma \circ I^t w \quad (9)$$

and thus

Corollary. A system is hidden input observable if and only if

$$\ker \Sigma \circ I^t = \{0\} \quad (10)$$

where we identify the null function as $w = 0$ a.e.

1.1 Properties of the integral operator

By setting $\hat{\tau} = (t - \tau)$ and $f(\hat{\tau}) = w(t - \hat{\tau})$ the integrals in I^t are simplified to

$$I^t(f) = \left(\frac{1}{k!} \int_0^t \tau^k f(\tau) d\tau \right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0}. \quad (11)$$

Proposition 1. The operator I^t is bounded and continuous.

Proof. Estimation of the integrals yield

$$\begin{aligned} \|I^t(f)\|_{l^2}^2 &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{k!} \int_0^t \tau^k f(\tau) d\tau \right|^2 \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{k!} \int_0^t |\tau^k f(\tau)| d\tau \right)^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{t^k}{k!} \int_0^t |f(\tau)| d\tau \right)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \int_0^t |f(\tau)| d\tau \right)^2 = (e^t \|f\|_{L^1})^2. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Thus $\|I^t(f)\|_{l^2} \leq e^t \|f\|_{L^1}$ which means I^t is bounded. Each bounded linear operator is continuous. \square

1.1.1 Fixed point of time

In the following, $t > 0$ is a fixed point of time. Considering t as a variable will lead to different conditions, as shown in 1.1.2. To prove that I^t is injective we define the n -th integral function F_n by

$$F_{n+1}(\tau) = \int_0^\tau F_n(\tau') d\tau' \quad , \quad F_0(\tau) = f(\tau) \quad (13)$$

$$F_n(0) = 0 \quad , \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (14)$$

and use the following lemma.

Lemma 1. [Extreme Value Theorem with marginal conditions]

Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function, G such that $G'(\tau) = g(\tau)$ and $g(a) = g(b) = G(a) = G(b) = 0$. Let $\{\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_N\}$ be the set of roots of g in (a, b) . Then G has at most $N - 1$ roots in (a, b) .

Proof. The roots of g form a finite set hence there is no interval where g is zero. Then G has an local extremum or an saddle point at each τ_i , and thus at most one root in (τ_i, τ_{i+1}) . Since G cannot be zero in (a, τ_1) and (τ_N, b) , G has at most $N - 1$ roots. \square

In the proof of injectivity, F_n will fit the assumptions of lemma 1. To see that, define the integral operators

$$I_{k,n}^t(f) = \frac{1}{(k-n)!} \int_0^t \tau^{k-n} F_n(\tau) d\tau \quad . \quad (15)$$

We deduce a recursive formula

$$I_{k,n}^t(f) = \frac{t^{k-n}}{(k-1)!} F_{n+1}(t) - I_{(k,n+1)}^t(f) \quad (16)$$

and identify

$$\left(I_{k,0}^t(f) \right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0} = I^t(f) \quad . \quad (17)$$

Combining (16) and (17) leads to the closed form expression

$$I^t(f) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^k (-1)^n \frac{t^{k-n}}{(k-n)!} F_{n+1}(t) \right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0} \quad . \quad (18)$$

Proposition 2. The operator I^t is injective.

Proof. Let $I^t(f) = 0 \in l^2$. With (18) it follows that

$$F_n(t) = 0 \quad , \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad . \quad (19)$$

Let \mathcal{R} be the countable set where $f(\tau) = 0$ for all $\tau \in \mathcal{R}$, let \mathcal{S} be the set where f is not continuous and changes sign and let \mathcal{I} be the set of intervals where f is zero. F_1 cannot have a local extremum on any interval of \mathcal{I} . Thus

$$\tau^* \text{ is a local extremum} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tau^* \in \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{S} \quad (20)$$

1. If $\mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{S}$ is finite, then $F_{|\mathcal{R}|+|\mathcal{S}|+1}$ surely has no local extremum and due to (19), $F_{|\mathcal{R}|+|\mathcal{S}|+1}$ has to be the null function. Because of $F_n'(t) = F_{n-1}(t)$, each F_n is the null function and $f = 0$ a.e.
2. If $\mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{S}$ is infinite then either f is not in $L^1([0, t])$ or $\mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{S}$ can be split into a finite part and a null set.

□

1.1.2 Variable time

Now we consider the full information of (10), i.e. I^t maps a function onto a trajectory in l^2 .

Proposition 3. The operator I^t is injective.

Proof. Let f such that $I^t = 0 \in l^2$ for each $t \in [0, T]$.

- Setting $t = T$ and using 2 proves that $f = 0$ a.e.
- In general consider a function f that is not zero a.e. but possibly $f(t) = 0$ on $[0, t_1]$. Chose $t_2 > t_1$ to be the first point where f changes sign. Then each component of $I_2^t(f)$ is non zero. Thus f has to be zero on $[t_1, t_2]$ a.e. Repeat this argument until $f = 0$ on $[0, T]$ a.e.

□

The two ways to prove the preceding proposition show, that a variable time puts more much stronger constrains to the hidden input f .

2 Properties of the matrix series

A key statement is the Cayley-Hamilton theorem. A proof can be found in [1].

Theorem 1 (Cayley-Hamilton). Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix and $\sum_{k=0}^n \tilde{c}_k \lambda^k$ the characteristic polynomial. Then

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \tilde{c}_k A^k = 0 \quad . \quad (21)$$

Corollary. 1. Each A^N , $N \geq n$, can be written as $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k A^k$ with some coefficients $\{c_k\}$ that can be calculated from $\{\tilde{c}_k\}$.

2. Multiplying with C and D also shows

$$CA^N D = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k CA^k D \quad (22)$$

for any $N \geq n$.

3. For each operator $\Sigma_N(s_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} CA^k D(s_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0}$ with $N \geq 0$

$$\text{rank} \Sigma_N = \text{rank} \Sigma_n \quad . \quad (23)$$

Lemma 2. The operator series Σ_N converges in norm and $\Sigma_N \longrightarrow \Sigma$.

Proof. The operator norm is defined by

$$\|\Sigma_N\| := \sup_{\|(s_k)\|_{l^2}=1} \|\Sigma_N(s_k)\| \quad . \quad (24)$$

□

Again, considering $t > 0$ as a fixed point in time and assuming I^t is surjective. We use the shorter notation (s_k) for a series $(s_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0} \in l^2$.

Theorem 2. The kernel of Σ is infinite dimensional.

Proof. Define a l^2 series by $s_k = \delta_{k,N}$ for a $N \geq n$. Then

$$\Sigma(s_k) = CA^n D = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k CA^k D \quad . \quad (25)$$

The l^2 series $\hat{s}_k = c_k$ for $k < n$ and $\hat{s}_k = 0$ for $k \geq n$ leads to the same result, thus

$$\text{span}(\hat{s}_k - s_k) \subset \text{kernel } \Sigma \quad . \quad (26)$$

Repeating this argument for each $N \geq n$ it is possible to get arbitrarily many linearly independent vectors $(\hat{s}_k - s_k)$. □

Now let $(s_k)(t)$ be a trajectory in l^2 .

References

- [1] Werner H. *Linear Algebra*. 1963.