

Lecture 7, Jan 29, 2024

Laplace Transform

Definition

The *Laplace transform* for a generic function $f(t)$ is defined as

$$F(s) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st} dt$$

The *unilateral* (one-sided) Laplace transform is defined as

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} \equiv \int_{0^-}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st} dt$$

where $s = \sigma + j\omega$ is a complex frequency variable with units of inverse time.

- The Laplace transform transforms linear ODEs into algebraic equations
- For our purposes since we only consider $t \geq 0$, we consider all functions to be 0 for $t < 0$ and so the unilateral transform suffices
- $F(s)$ exists (i.e. the integral converges) if for all $\text{Re}(s) > \alpha$ we have $|f(t)| < Me^{\alpha t}$ for all $s \in \mathbb{C}, M \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $f(t)$ grows slower than exponential
 - When multiplying transforms, the output is only valid for values of s in the intersection of the regions of convergence
- Some examples:

- Unit step: $\mathcal{L}\{1(t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} 1(t)e^{-st} dt = -\frac{1}{s} [e^{-st}]_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{s}$

- Unit impulse: $\mathcal{L}\{\delta(t)\} = \int_{0^-}^{\infty} \delta(t)e^{-st} dt = e^{-st}|_{t=0} = 1$

* Note that we had to start at 0^- to include 0 in the integration region

- Exponential: $\mathcal{L}\{e^{at}\} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{at}e^{-st} dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(s-a)t} dt = -\frac{1}{s-a} [e^{-(s-a)t}]_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{s-a}$

* Note we need to assume $\text{Re}(s) > \text{Re}(a)$ so that the exponent has a negative real part

- Sinusoid: $\mathcal{L}\{\cos(\omega t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} \cos(\omega t)e^{-st} dt$
$$= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{j\omega t} + e^{-j\omega t}}{2} e^{-st} dt$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2(s-j\omega)} [e^{-(s-j\omega)t}]_0^{\infty} - \frac{1}{2(s+j\omega)} [e^{-(s+j\omega)t}]_0^{\infty}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2(s-j\omega)} + \frac{1}{2(s+j\omega)}$$
$$= \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

* Similarly we can show $\mathcal{L}\{\sin(\omega t)\} = \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$

- Power of t : $\int_0^{\infty} t^n e^{-st} dt = \left[-\frac{t^n}{s} e^{-st} \right]_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} nt^{n-1} \frac{e^{-st}}{s} dt$
$$= \frac{n}{s} \int_0^{\infty} t^{n-1} e^{-st} dt$$
$$= \frac{n}{s} \mathcal{L}\{t^{n-1}\}$$
$$= \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}$$

* Therefore the unit ramp function has $\mathcal{L}\{t\} = \frac{1}{s^2}$

• Important properties:

– Linearity/superposition: $\mathcal{L}\{\alpha_1 f_1(t) + \alpha_2 f_2(t)\} = \alpha_1 F_1(s) + \alpha_2 F_2(s)$

– Time delay: $\mathcal{L}\{f(t-\tau)1(t-\tau)\} = \int_0^\infty f(t-\tau)1(t-\tau)e^{-st} dt$
 $= \int_\tau^\infty f(t-\tau)e^{-st} dt$
 $= \int_0^\infty f(\lambda)e^{-s(\tau+\lambda)} d\lambda$
 $= e^{-\tau s} \int_0^\infty f(\lambda)e^{-s\lambda} d\lambda$
 $= e^{-\tau s} F(s)$

* A delay in time domain is a multiplication by an exponential in Laplace domain

– Differentiation: $\mathcal{L}\left\{\frac{d}{dt}f(t)\right\} = \int_0^\infty e^{-st}\dot{f}(t) dt$
 $= [f(t)e^{-st}]_0^\infty + s \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{-st} dt$
 $= sF(s) - f(0)$

* Note the $f(0)$ term vanishes for a zero-state response

* For higher derivatives: $\mathcal{L}\left\{\frac{d^2}{dt^2}f(t)\right\} = s(sF(s) - f(0)) - \dot{f}(0) = s^2F(s) - sf(0) - \dot{f}(0)$

* Going backwards: $\mathcal{L}\{tf(t)\} = -\frac{d}{ds}F(s)$

– Integration: $\mathcal{L}\left\{\int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau\right\} = \int_0^\infty \int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau e^{-st} dt$
 $= -\frac{1}{s} \left[\int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau e^{-st} \right]_0^\infty + \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{-st} dt$
 $= \frac{1}{s} F(s)$

– Convolution: $\mathcal{L}\{f(t) * h(t)\} = \int_0^\infty \int_0^t f(t-\tau)h(\tau) d\tau e^{-st} dt$
 $= \int_0^\infty \int_0^t f(t-\tau)h(t)e^{-st} d\tau dt$
 $= \int_0^\infty \int_\tau^\infty f(t-\tau)h(\tau)e^{-st} dt d\tau$
 $= \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty f(\lambda)h(\tau)e^{-s(\lambda+\tau)} d\lambda d\tau$
 $= \int_0^\infty f(\lambda)e^{-s\lambda} d\lambda \int_0^\infty h(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau$
 $= F(s)H(s)$

* This means we can multiply the Laplace transform of the input by the Laplace transform of the impulse response to get the Laplace transform of the output

* Note $\mathcal{L}\{f(t)h(t)\} = \frac{1}{2\pi j} (F(s) * H(s))$

– Final Value Theorem: $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sF(s)$

* Recall that $\mathcal{L}\left\{\frac{d}{dt}f\right\} = sF(s) - f(0)$

* $\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} (sF(s) - f(0)) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sF(s) - f(0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \frac{df}{dt} dt = \int_0^\infty \frac{df}{dt} dt = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t) - f(0)$

- * Note this requires that $f(t)$ and $\frac{df}{dt}$ have Laplace transforms, and $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t)$ exists, i.e. it is *stable*
- Initial Value Theorem: $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} f(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} sF(s)$

Transfer Functions

Definition

Transfer Function: The ratio of the Laplace transforms of the output to the input of a system, assuming that the system was initially at equilibrium (zero state/initial conditions).

- All transfer functions assume zero-state; if we want to look at initial conditions we shouldn't use transfer functions
- Given any input $u(t)$ to the system, the output of the system in time domain is $y(t) = h(t) * u(t)$ where $h(t)$ is the impulse response
- In Laplace domain, the output is $Y(s) = H(s)U(s)$ where $H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{U(s)}$, the Laplace transform of the impulse response, is the transfer function
- For all LTI systems, the transfer function of the system fully characterizes the system dynamics
- Most transfer functions are rational functions $H(s) = K_H \frac{n_H(s)}{d_H(s)} = K_h \frac{s^m + b_1 s^{m-1} + \dots + b_m}{s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + a_n}$
 - Poles are the roots of $d_H(s)$
 - * These are more important than the zeros
 - Zeros are the roots of $n_H(s)$
 - Poles are denoted with an X while zeros are denoted by O on the complex plane when plotting
 - K_H is the transfer function *gain*
 - $d_H(s)$ is the *characteristic equation* of the transfer function/system
 - * The system's *order* is the degree of $d_H(s)$
- For all causal systems, the *relative degree* $n - m$ of the transfer function is always greater than or equal to zero
 - Consider $H(s) = s$; then for an input $U(s)$, we get output $Y(s) = sU(s)$, which means $y(t) = \frac{d}{dt}u(t)$
 - * Such a system cannot be causal, because in order to determine the derivative of the input, the system needs to somehow anticipate the input's behaviour in the future
 - * e.g. if we put in a sinusoid, it will be shifted to the left, which is non-causal
 - * Generally, zeros tend to push the system towards non-causality by moving the response earlier in time, while poles push the system towards causality by delaying the response
 - The transfer function is a *proper ratio* (if $m < n$, then it is *strictly proper*)
 - Most systems we will study have strictly proper transfer functions
- $H(s) = K_H \frac{\prod_{i=1}^m (s - z_i)}{\prod_{i=1}^n (s - p_i)} = \left(\frac{K_H \prod_{i=1}^m z_i}{\prod_{i=1}^n p_i} \right) \frac{\prod_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{s}{z_i} - 1 \right)}{\prod_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{s}{p_i} - 1 \right)}$ where z_i are the zeros, p_i the are poles
- For any LTI system, the poles of a system determines its behaviour
 - Note complex poles always come in conjugate pairs
 - Any poles on the right hand plane are unstable, i.e. the output will keep growing
 - * Larger real values lead to faster growth
 - Any poles on the left hand plane are convergent, i.e. output eventually settles to 0
 - * More negative real values lead to faster decay
 - Poles with zero real part neither grow nor shrink in magnitude
 - Any imaginary component in the pole causes the output to oscillate
 - * Larger imaginary component lead to higher oscillation frequency
- When there are multiple poles and zeros, they will interact with each other and lead to more interesting behaviour

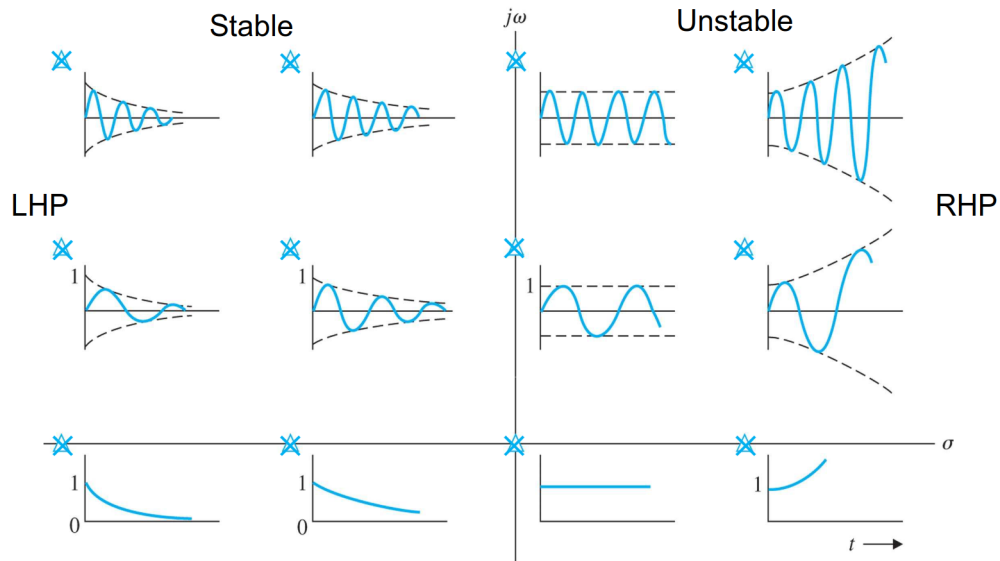


Figure 1: Behaviour of a system according to its poles.

- The *DC gain* (or *static gain*) is the steady-state response of the system to the unit step input
 - This will give an output $Y_s(s) = H(s)U(s) = \frac{1}{s}H(s)$
 - Using FVT, $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y_s(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \left(\frac{1}{s}H(s) \right) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} H(s)$
 - This makes the DC gain very easy to find