

Linear Systems (034032)

lecture no. 5

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Outline

Background: (rudimentary) complex functions

(Bilateral) Laplace transform

(Bilateral) z transform

Solving differential equations with the Laplace transform

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Solving differential equations with the Laplace transform

Functions of a complex variable

A complex function F is a mapping $F : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. The complex derivative of F at $s_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ is

$$F'(s_0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow s_0} \frac{F(s) - F(s_0)}{s - s_0},$$

where the limit is supposed to be independent of the (complex) path along which s approaches s_0 . If the limit above exists, then the function F is said to be complex differentiable at s_0 .

If $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{C}$ is an open set, we say that F is holomorphic (analytic) in \mathcal{D} if $F'(s_0)$ exists for every $s_0 \in \mathcal{D}$.

Entire functions are those holomorphic in the whole \mathbb{C} . A function is said to be holomorphic at $s_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ if it is holomorphic in some neighbourhood of s_0 .

Examples: Functions s^n for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and e^{as} for $a \in \mathbb{R}$ are entire:

$$(s^n)' = ns^{n-1} \quad \text{and} \quad (e^{as})' = ae^{as}.$$

Function $1/s^n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is holomorphic in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$, as $(1/s^n)' = -n/s^{n+1}$.

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Isolated singularities

We say that F has an **isolated singularity** at a point $s_0 \in \mathbb{D}$, where \mathbb{D} is an open set in \mathbb{C} , if F is holomorphic in $\mathbb{D} \setminus \{s_0\}$. Three cases are possible:

1. if F can be defined at s_0 so that the extended function is holomorphic in \mathbb{D} (roughly, if $F(s_0)$ is bounded), then the singularity is **removable**;
e.g. $F(s) = (1 - e^{-s})/s$ has a removable singularity at $s = 0$, because $F(0) = 1$
2. if there is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(s - s_0)^n F(s)$ has a removable singularity at s_0 and $\lim_{s \rightarrow s_0} (s - s_0)^n F(s) \neq 0$, then the singularity is a **pole** and n is its **order**¹ (or multiplicity);
e.g. $F(s) = 1/s^2$ has a second-order pole at $s = 0$, because $sF(s) = s/s^2 = 1/s$ has a non-removable singularity at $s = 0$ and $s^2F(s) = s^2/s^2 = 1$ is entire and nonzero at $s = 0$
3. if no finite n as in item 2. exists, then the singularity is called **essential**.
e.g. $F(s) = e^{1/s}$ has an essential singularity at $s = 0$

¹If the order equals 1, then the pole is said to be *simple*.

Rational functions and partial fraction expansion

A function F is said to be **rational** if it is the quotient of two polynomials,

$$F(s) = \frac{b_m s^m + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} + \cdots + b_1 s + b_0}{s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 s + a_0} =: \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}, \quad b_m \neq 0$$

It's called **proper** / **strictly proper** / **bi-proper** if $n \geq m$ / $n > m$ / $n = m$ and non-proper if $n < m$. When all coefficients are real, F is called *real-rational*. Every root of $D(s) = 0$ that is not a root of $N(s) = 0$ is a pole of F .

If F is proper, then

$$F(s) = F(\infty) + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \frac{c_{ij}}{(s-p_i)^j}$$

for distinct poles $p_i \in \mathbb{C}$ of F of order n_i and $c_{ij} \in \mathbb{C}$. This form is known as the *partial fraction expansion* of F . If p_i is a simple pole, i.e. $n_i = 1$, then

$$c_{i1} = \text{Res}(F, p_i) = \lim_{s \rightarrow p_i} (s-p_i)F(s) \neq 0$$

is the *residue* of F at $s = p_i$.

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Pros and cons of the Fourier transform

The Fourier transform,

$$X(j\omega) = (\mathfrak{F}\{x\})(j\omega) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

decomposes x into **elementary harmonic signals** via

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(j\omega)e^{j\omega t} d\omega.$$

This

☺ offers a valuable insight into properties of x .

However, it

☹ applies to only a limited class of signals, some widely used signals (like $\mathbb{1}$) require Dirac distributions and some (like $\exp_{\lambda} \mathbb{1}$ for $\lambda > 0$) are not transformable at all.

Definition

The **bilateral (two-sided) Laplace transform** $\mathcal{L}\{x\}$ of a signal $x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ is

$$X(s) = (\mathcal{L}\{x\})(s) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t)e^{-st} dt$$

defined over those $s \in \mathbb{C}$ for which the integral converges. The latter set is known as the **region of convergence** (RoC) of the transform. If $s = \sigma + j\omega$, then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t)e^{-st} dt = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (x(t)e^{-\sigma t})e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

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If the whole vertical line $\{s \in \mathbb{C} \mid \text{Re } s = \sigma\} \subset \text{RoC}$, then

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{j2\pi} \int_{\sigma + j\mathbb{R}} X(s)e^{st} ds$$

(the inverse Laplace transform).

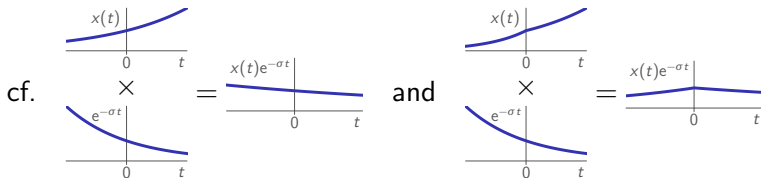
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If $\sigma > 0$, then $x(t)$ should decay faster than $e^{-\sigma t}$ grows in $t < 0$ and grow slower than $e^{-\sigma t}$ decays in $t > 0$:



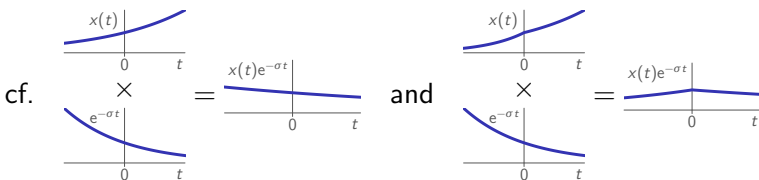
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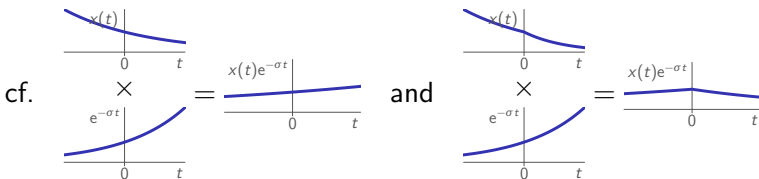
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Remarks on RoC (contd)

Many hurdles are avoided if $\text{supp}(x)$ is limited to finite interval or semi-axis.
 For instance, if $\text{supp}(x) = \mathbb{R}_+$, then $\exists \alpha_x \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\pm\infty\}$ such that

$$\underbrace{\{s \in \mathbb{C} \mid \text{Re } s > \alpha_x\}}_{\mathbb{C}_{\alpha_x}} \subset \text{RoC} \quad \text{and} \quad \underbrace{\{s \in \mathbb{C} \mid \text{Re } s < \alpha_x\}}_{\mathbb{C} \setminus \bar{\mathbb{C}}_{\alpha_x}} \cap \text{RoC} = \emptyset$$

(here $\bar{\mathbb{C}}_{\alpha_x}$ stands for the closure of \mathbb{C}_{α_x}). Particular cases:

- $\alpha_x = -\infty \implies \text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}$
- $\alpha_x = +\infty \implies \text{RoC} = \emptyset$

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If the RoC of x is nonempty, then X can be extended beyond its RoC to the whole \mathbb{C} by the analytic continuation technique (not always possible) and we treat $X = \mathcal{L}\{x\}$ as a signal $X: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, which may contain singularities.

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
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If the RoC of x is nonempty, then X can be extended beyond its RoC to the whole \mathbb{C} by the *analytic continuation* technique (don't ask what's that) and we treat $X = \mathcal{L}\{x\}$ as a signal $X : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, which may contain singularities.

Mind the RoC

Example 1: if $x_1 = \exp_{-1} \mathbb{1}$, i.e. $x_1(t) = e^{-t} \mathbb{1}(t) =$ , then

$$X_1(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x_1(t) e^{-st} dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(s+1)t} dt = -\frac{e^{-(s+1)t}}{s+1} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{s+1}$$

Example 2: if $x_2 = -\mathbb{P}_{-1}(\exp_1 \mathbb{1})$, i.e. $x_2(t) = -e^{-t} \mathbb{1}(-t) =$ , then

$$X_2(s) = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} x_2(t) e^{-st} dt = -\int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-(s+1)t} dt = \frac{e^{-(s+1)t}}{s+1} \Big|_{-\infty}^0 = \frac{1}{s+1}$$

The only way to distinguish them is via their RoC's:

$$\text{RoC}_1 = \mathbb{C}_{-1}$$

$$\text{RoC}_2 = \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{C}_{-1}$$

(note that $\text{RoC}_1 \cap \text{RoC}_2 = \emptyset$).

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The only way to distinguish them is via their RoC's:

- $\text{RoC}_1 = \mathbb{C}_{-1}$ $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{-(s+1)t} = 0 \iff \text{Re}(s+1) > 0$
- $\text{RoC}_2 = \mathbb{C} \setminus \bar{\mathbb{C}}_{-1}$ $\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} e^{-(s+1)t} = 0 \iff \text{Re}(s+1) < 0$

(note that $\text{RoC}_1 \cap \text{RoC}_2 = \emptyset$).

Basic properties

Assuming all involved signals have their support in \mathbb{R}_+ ,

property	time domain	s-domain	RoC
linearity	$x = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2$	$X(s) = a_1X_1(s) + a_2X_2(s)$	$\mathbb{C}_{\alpha_1} \cap \mathbb{C}_{\alpha_2}$
time shift	$y = \mathbb{S}_\tau x$	$Y(s) = e^{\tau s} X(s)$	\mathbb{C}_{α_x}
time scaling	$y = \mathbb{P}_\zeta x, \zeta > 0$	$Y(s) = \frac{1}{\zeta} X\left(\frac{s}{\zeta}\right)$	$\mathbb{C}_{\zeta\alpha_x}$
modulation	$y = x \exp_{s_0}$	$Y(s) = X(s - s_0)$	$\mathbb{C}_{\alpha_x + \text{Re } s_0}$
t-modulation	$y = x \text{ramp}$	$Y(s) = -\frac{d}{ds} X(s)$	\mathbb{C}_{α_x}
differentiation ²	$y = \dot{x}$	$Y(s) = sX(s)$	\mathbb{C}_{α_x}
convolution	$z = x * y$	$Z(s) = X(s)Y(s)$	$\mathbb{C}_{\alpha_x} \cap \mathbb{C}_{\alpha_y}$

²If $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t)e^{-st} = 0$ for all $s \in \text{RoC}$, which is normally the case for $x \exp_{-\text{Re } s} \in L_1$.

Laplace transform of the rectangular pulse

If $x = \text{rect}$, then

$$X(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t) e^{-st} dt = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} e^{-st} dt = \frac{e^{-st}}{-s} \Big|_{-1/2}^{1/2} = \frac{e^{s/2} - e^{-s/2}}{s}$$

and the integral converges for all s . Hence, **RoC** = \mathbb{C} for this signal.

Remark: Note that the function $(e^{s/2} - e^{-s/2})/s$ is entire, which follows by either

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{s/2} - e^{-s/2}}{s} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{s/2}/2 + e^{-s/2}/2}{1} = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{e^{s/2} - e^{-s/2}}{s} = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} e^{-st} dt,$$

the first by L'Hôpital's rule, so the singularity of $(e^{s/2} - e^{-s/2})/s$ at $s = 0$ is removable.

Consequence:

→ by time scaling, if $y = \text{rect}_a$ for some $a > 0$, then

$$Y(s) = (\mathcal{L}\{\text{rect}_a\})(s) = \frac{e^{sa/2} - e^{-sa/2}}{s}$$

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$$Y(s) = (\mathcal{L}\{\mathbb{P}_{1/a}\text{rect}\})(s) = \frac{e^{sa/2} - e^{-sa/2}}{s} = \frac{\sinh(as/2)}{s/2}$$

Laplace transform of the step

If $x = \mathbb{1}$, then

$$X(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t) e^{-st} dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^T e^{-st} dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - e^{-sT}}{s}$$

Cases:

- if $\operatorname{Re} s < 0$, then $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} |e^{-sT}| = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} e^{-(\operatorname{Re} s)T} = \infty$
- if $s = 0$, then $\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - e^{-sT}}{s} = T$ diverge as $T \rightarrow \infty$
- if $s = j\omega$ for $\omega \neq 0$, then $\frac{1 - e^{-j\omega T}}{j\omega}$ doesn't converge as $T \rightarrow \infty$
- if $\operatorname{Re} s > 0$, then $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} |e^{-sT}| = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} e^{-(\operatorname{Re} s)T} = 0$

Thus, the integral converges iff $\operatorname{Re} s > 0$ and then

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

and $\operatorname{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_0 := \{s \in \mathbb{C} \mid \operatorname{Re} s > 0\}$. If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has a singularity (pole) at $s = 0$.

Laplace transform of the step (contd)

Consequences:

- if $y = \mathbb{1} * x$, i.e. $y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t x(t)dt$, then by the convolution property

$$Y(s) = \frac{X(s)}{s}$$

and its RoC is the intersection of \mathbb{C}_0 and the RoC of x .

- if $y = \frac{\text{ramp}^n}{n!}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e. $y(t) = \frac{t^n \mathbb{1}(t)}{n!}$, then by the t -modulation

$$Y(s) = \frac{1}{s^{n+1}}$$

and its RoC is still \mathbb{C}_0 .

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and its RoC is still \mathbb{C}_0 . For example,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{1}{s} \right) &= -\frac{1}{s^2} &\implies & \mathcal{L}\{\mathbb{1} \cdot \text{ramp}\} = \mathcal{L}\{\text{ramp}\} = \frac{1}{s^2} \\ \frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{1}{s^2} \right) &= -\frac{2}{s^3} &\implies & \mathcal{L}\{\text{ramp} \cdot \text{ramp}\} = \mathcal{L}\{\text{ramp}^2\} = \frac{2!}{s^3} \\ & && \vdots \end{aligned}$$

Laplace transform of exponential

If $x = \exp_{\lambda} \mathbb{1}$ for $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} X(s) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t) e^{-st} dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(s-\lambda)t} dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^T e^{-(s-\lambda)t} dt \\ &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - e^{-(s-\lambda)T}}{s - \lambda} \end{aligned}$$

and by already familiar arguments

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s - \lambda}$$

and $\text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_{\text{Re } \lambda} := \{s \in \mathbb{C} \mid \text{Re } s > \text{Re } \lambda\}$, where $\text{Re}(s - \lambda) > 0$.

If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has a singularity (pole) at $s = \lambda$.

Laplace transform of sine wave

If $x(t) = \sin(\omega_x t + \phi) \mathbb{1}(t)$ for $\omega_x, \phi \in \mathbb{R}$, then (see Lect. 3, Slide 4)

$$x(t) = \left(\frac{e^{j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2} e^{j\omega_x t} + \frac{e^{-j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2} e^{-j\omega_x t} \right) \mathbb{1}(t)$$

Hence, by linearity and the transform of the exponential,

$$\begin{aligned} X(s) &= \frac{e^{j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2(s - j\omega_x)} + \frac{e^{-j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2(s + j\omega_x)} = \frac{-je^{j\phi}}{2(s - j\omega_x)} + \frac{je^{-j\phi}}{2(s + j\omega_x)} \\ &= \frac{-sj(e^{j\phi} - e^{-j\phi}) + \omega_x(e^{j\phi} + e^{-j\phi})}{2(s^2 + \omega_x^2)} \\ &= \frac{s \sin \phi + \omega_x \cos \phi}{s^2 + \omega_x^2} \end{aligned}$$

and $\text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_0$.

If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has singularities (poles) at $s = \pm j\omega_x$.

Laplace transform of modulated sine wave

If

$$x(t) = e^{\lambda t} \sin(\omega_x t + \phi) \mathbb{1}(t) = \begin{cases} \text{[Graph: decaying sine wave]} & \text{if } \lambda < 0 \\ \text{[Graph: growing sine wave]} & \text{if } \lambda > 0 \end{cases}$$

for $\omega_x, \phi, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then by modulation

$$X(s) = \frac{(s - \lambda) \sin \phi + \omega_x \cos \phi}{(s - \lambda)^2 + \omega_x^2} = \frac{s \sin \phi + \omega_x \cos \phi - \lambda \sin \phi}{s^2 + 2\lambda s + \omega_x^2 + \lambda^2}$$

and $\text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_\lambda$.

If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has singularities (poles) at $s = \lambda \pm j\omega_x$.

Laplace transform of the Dirac delta

If $x = \delta$, then

$$X(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) e^{-st} dt = e^{-st} \Big|_{t=0} = 1$$

and $\text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}$.

Consequence:

if $y = \delta_\tau$ for $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $y(t) = \delta(t + \tau)$, then

$$Y(s) = e^{s\tau}$$

by the time shift property.

Laplace transform of the Dirac delta

If $x = \delta$, then

$$X(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) e^{-st} dt = e^{-st} \Big|_{t=0} = 1$$

and $\text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}$.

Consequence:

- if $y = \mathfrak{S}_{\tau} \delta$ for $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $y(t) = \delta(t + \tau)$, then

$$Y(s) = e^{\tau s}$$

by the time shift property.

Unilateral (one-sided) transform

The transform of $x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ of the form

$$\int_{0^-}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st} dt$$

is known as its unilateral (or one-sided) Laplace transform. It is, in fact, the bilateral Laplace transform of $x\mathbb{1}$. The bi- and unilateral Laplace transforms coincide if $\text{supp}(x) \subset \mathbb{R}_+$, in which case $x = x\mathbb{1}$.

The properties of the one-sided Laplace transform are similar to those of its two-sided counterpart, with some deviations, like

- if $y(t) = \dot{x}(t)$, then its unilateral transform $Y(s) = sX(s) - x(0^-)$
- time shift is not well defined if only a part of the support is taken into account, as is done in the unilateral transform, requiring some tricks

Fourier vs. Laplace

The relations

$$(\mathfrak{F}\{x\})(j\omega) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt \quad \text{and} \quad (\mathcal{L}\{x\})(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t)e^{-st} dt$$

suggest that $\mathfrak{F}\{x\} = \mathcal{L}\{x\}|_{s=j\omega}$. This is why we use the notation $X(j\omega)$ for the Fourier. However, certain care shall be taken with this relation, it is

— true only if $j\mathbb{R} \subset \text{RoC}$ of the Laplace transform of x ,
 i.e. only if x is Fourier transformable.

Example (1)


If $x(t) = e^{-t}\mathbb{1}(t)$, then $X(s) = 1/(s+1)$. If $Y = X|_{s=j\omega}$, then


$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega + 1} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (\mathfrak{F}^{-1}\{Y\})(t) = e^{-t}\mathbb{1}(t) = x(t)$$

(see Ex. 1.3.10 of [1]), because $j\mathbb{R} \subset \text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_{-1}$.

Fourier vs. Laplace (contd)

Example (2)

If $x(t) = e^t \mathbb{1}(t) =$  , then $X(s) = 1/(s - 1)$. But $Y = X|_{s=j\omega}$ has

$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega - 1} \implies (\mathfrak{F}^{-1}\{Y\})(t) = -e^t \mathbb{1}(-t) =$$
 $\neq x(t)$

because $j\mathbb{R} \not\subset \text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_1$.

Example (3)


If $x(t) = \mathbb{1}(t)$, then $X(s) = 1/s$. If $Y = X|_{s=j\omega}$, then


$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega} \neq \frac{1}{j\omega} + \pi\delta(\omega) = X(j\omega)$$

because $j\mathbb{R} \not\subset \text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_0$.

Fourier vs. Laplace (contd)

Example (2)

If $x(t) = e^t \mathbb{1}(t) =$ , then $X(s) = 1/(s - 1)$. But $Y = X|_{s=j\omega}$ has

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Example (3)

If $x(t) = \mathbb{1}(t)$, then $X(s) = 1/s$. If $Y = X|_{s=j\omega}$, then

$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega} \neq \frac{1}{j\omega} + \pi\delta(\omega) = X(j\omega)$$

(see Lect. 3, Slide 41), because $j\mathbb{R} \not\subset \text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}_0$.

The final value theorem

Theorem

If $x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ with $\text{supp}(x) \subset \mathbb{R}_+$ is converging, then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) = \text{Res}(X, 0).$$

Example

Let $x(t) = e^{\lambda t} \sin(\omega_x t + \phi) \mathbb{1}(t)$, for which

$$X(s) = \frac{s \sin \phi + \omega_x \cos \phi - \lambda \sin \phi}{s^2 + 2\lambda s + \omega_x^2 + \lambda^2}$$

In this case

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s(s \sin \phi + \omega_x \cos \phi - \lambda \sin \phi)}{s^2 + 2\lambda s + \omega_x^2 + \lambda^2} = 0$$

equals $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t)$ only if $\lambda < 0$, otherwise this 0 makes no sense.

The final value theorem

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The initial value theorem

Theorem

If $x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ with $\text{supp}(x) \subset \mathbb{R}_+$ is such that $x(0^+)$ exists, then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} x(t) = \lim_{s \in \mathbb{R}, s \rightarrow \infty} sX(s).$$

Example

Let $x(t) = e^{\lambda t} \sin(\omega_x t + \phi) \mathbb{1}(t)$, for which

$$X(s) = \frac{s \sin \phi + \omega_x \cos \phi - \lambda \sin \phi}{s^2 + 2\lambda s + \omega_x^2 + \lambda^2}$$

In this case

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} sX(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{s^2 \sin \phi + s(\omega_x \cos \phi - \lambda \sin \phi)}{s^2 + 2\lambda s + \omega_x^2 + \lambda^2} = \sin \phi = x(0),$$

indeed.

The initial value theorem

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In this case

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} sX(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{s^2 \sin \phi + s(\omega_x \cos \phi - \lambda \sin \phi)}{s^2 + 2\lambda s + \omega_x^2 + \lambda^2} = \sin \phi = x(0),$$

indeed.

Outline

Background: (rudimentary) complex functions

(Bilateral) Laplace transform

(Bilateral) z transform

Solving differential equations with the Laplace transform

Definition

The **bilateral (two-sided) z-transform** $\mathfrak{Z}\{x\}$ of a signal $x : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ is

$$X(z) = (\mathfrak{Z}\{x\})(z) := \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} x[t]z^{-t}$$

defined over those $z \in \mathbb{C}$ for which the sum converges (again, the RoC). If $z = \gamma e^{j\theta}$, then

$$\sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} x[t]z^{-t} = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} (x[t]\gamma^{-t})e^{-j\theta t}$$

is the DTFT of $x \exp_{1/\gamma}$ and the condition $x \exp_{1/|z|} \in \ell_1$ ensures that this z is in the RoC. Like in the Laplace transform case, we mostly z-transform signals x with $\text{supp}(x) \subset \mathbb{Z}_+$. For such signals $\exists \alpha_x \in \mathbb{R}_+ \cup \{\infty\}$ such that $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| > \alpha_x\} \subset \text{RoC}$ and $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| < \alpha_x\} \cap \text{RoC} = \emptyset$.

If the RoC of x is nonempty, then X can be extended beyond its RoC to the whole \mathbb{C} by the analytic continuation technique and we treat $X = \mathfrak{Z}\{x\}$ as a signal $X : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, which may contain singularities.

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Basic properties

Assuming all involved signals have their support in \mathbb{Z}_+ ,

property	time domain	z -domain	RoC
linearity	$x = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2$	$X(z) = a_1X_1(z) + a_2X_2(z)$	\cap
time shift	$y = \mathcal{S}_\tau x$	$Y(z) = z^\tau X(z)$	RoC_x
modulation	$y = x \exp_\lambda$	$Y(z) = X(z/\lambda)$	$ \lambda \text{RoC}_x$
t -modulation	$y = x \text{ramp}$	$Y(z) = -z \frac{d}{dz} X(z)$	RoC_x
convolution	$w = x * y$	$W(z) = X(z)Y(z)$	\cap

z-transform of the pulse

If $x = \delta$, then

$$X(z) = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \delta[t] z^{-t} = z^0 = 1$$

and $\text{RoC} = \mathbb{C}$.

Consequence:

→ if $y = \delta_\tau$ for $\tau \in \mathbb{Z}$, i.e. $y[t] = \delta[t + \tau]$, then

$$Y(z) = z^\tau$$

→ by the time shift property.

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$$X(z) = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \delta[t] z^{-t} = z^0 = 1$$

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Consequence:

- if $y = \mathfrak{S}_\tau \delta$ for $\tau \in \mathbb{Z}$, i.e. $y[t] = \delta[t + \tau]$, then

$$Y(z) = z^\tau$$

by the time shift property.

z-transform of the step

If $x = \mathbb{1}$, then

$$X(z) = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} x[t]z^{-t} = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}_+} z^{-t} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{t=0}^T z^{-t} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{z - z^{-T}}{z - 1}$$

Cases:

- if $|z| < 1$, then $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} |z^{-T}| = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} |z|^{-T} = \infty$
- if $z = 1$, then $\lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{z - z^{-T}}{z - 1} = T + 1$ diverge as $T \rightarrow \infty$
- if $z = e^{j\theta}$ for $\theta \neq 0$, then $e^{-j\theta T}$ doesn't converge as $T \rightarrow \infty$
- if $|z| > 1$, then $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} |z^{-T}| = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} |z|^{-T} = 0$

Thus, the sum converges iff $|z| > 1$ and then

$$X(z) = \frac{z}{z - 1}$$

and $\text{RoC} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| > 1\}$. If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has a singularity (pole) at $z = 1$.

z-transform of exponential

If $x = \exp_{\lambda} \mathbb{1}$ for $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} x[t] z^{-t} = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}_+} \lambda^t z^{-t} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{t=0}^T \left(\frac{z}{\lambda}\right)^{-t} \\ &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{z/\lambda - (z/\lambda)^{-T}}{z/\lambda - 1} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{z - \lambda(z/\lambda)^{-T}}{z - \lambda} \end{aligned}$$

and by already familiar arguments

$$X(z) = \frac{z}{z - \lambda}$$

and $\text{RoC} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| > |\lambda|\}$, where $|z/\lambda| > 1$.

If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has a singularity (pole) at $z = \lambda$.

z-transform of sine wave

If $x[t] = \sin[\theta_x t + \phi] \mathbb{1}[t]$ for $\theta_x, \phi \in \mathbb{R}$, then (see Lect. 3, Slide 4)

$$x[t] = \left(\frac{e^{j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2} (e^{j\theta_x})^t + \frac{e^{-j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2} (e^{-j\theta_x})^t \right) \mathbb{1}[t]$$

Hence, by linearity and the transform of the exponential,

$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \frac{e^{j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2(z - e^{j\theta_x})} + \frac{e^{-j(\phi - \pi/2)}}{2(z - e^{-j\theta_x})} = \frac{-je^{j\phi} z}{2(z - e^{j\theta_x})} + \frac{je^{-j\phi} z}{2(z - e^{-j\theta_x})} \\ &= \frac{z(z \sin \phi + \sin(\theta_x - \phi))}{z^2 - 2 \cos \theta_x z + 1} \end{aligned}$$

and $\text{RoC} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| > 1\}$.

If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has singularities (poles) at $z = e^{\pm j\theta_x}$.

z-transform of modulated sine wave

If

$$x[t] = \lambda^t \sin[\theta_x t + \phi] \mathbb{1}[t] = \begin{cases} \text{if } |\lambda| < 1 \\ \text{if } |\lambda| > 1 \end{cases}$$

for $\theta_x, \phi, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then by modulation

$$X(z) = \frac{z(z \sin \phi + \lambda \sin(\theta_x - \phi))}{z^2 - 2\lambda \cos \theta_x z + \lambda^2}$$

and $\text{RoC} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| > |\lambda|\}$.

If treated as a signal $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, this X has singularities (poles) at $z = \lambda e^{\pm j\theta_x}$.

The final and initial value theorems

Theorem

If $x : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ with $\text{supp}(x) \subset \mathbb{Z}_+$ is converging, then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x[t] = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z - 1)X(z) = \text{Res}(X, 1)$$

Theorem

If $x : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ with $\text{supp}(x) \subset \mathbb{Z}_+$ is such that $x[0]$ exists, then

$$x[0] = \lim_{z \in \mathbb{R}, z \rightarrow \infty} X(z).$$

Proof: follows directly from $X(z) = x[0] + x[1]z^{-1} + x[2]z^{-2} + \dots$ □

Outline

Background: (rudimentary) complex functions

(Bilateral) Laplace transform

(Bilateral) z transform

Solving differential equations with the Laplace transform

Thermometer model



A mercury thermometer is a system mapping the ambient temperature into the temperature of the mercury inside it (which, in turn, changes its volume as a result). Assuming that

- the heat transfer coefficient is constant and
- there is no thermal radiation in heat transfer

the Newton's law of cooling yields that the mercury temperature θ satisfies

$$\tau \dot{\theta}(t) = \theta_{\text{amb}}(t) - \theta(t),$$

where θ_{amb} is the ambient temperature and $\tau > 0$ is a parameter dependent on the thermal properties of the thermometer.

Assuming that $\theta(t) = \theta_0$ for all $t < 0$, the model in terms of deviations from θ_0 is

$$\tau \dot{\tilde{\theta}}(t) + \tilde{\theta}(t) = \tilde{\theta}_{\text{amb}}(t),$$

where $\tilde{\theta}(t) = \theta(t) - \theta_0$ and $\tilde{\theta}_{\text{amb}}(t) = \theta_{\text{amb}}(t) - \theta_0$ with $\text{supp}(\tilde{\theta}) = \mathbb{R}_+$.

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where $\tilde{\theta}(t) = \theta(t) - \theta_0$ and $\tilde{\theta}_{\text{amb}}(t) = \theta_{\text{amb}}(t) - \theta_0$ with $\text{supp}(\tilde{\theta}) = \mathbb{R}_+$.

Thermometer model in the s -domain

By the linearity and differentiation properties of the Laplace transform, the model in the s -domain reads as the *algebraic* relation

$$\tau s \tilde{\Theta}(s) + \tilde{\Theta}(s) = \tilde{\Theta}_{\text{amb}}(s) \quad \iff \quad \tilde{\Theta}(s) = \frac{\tilde{\Theta}_{\text{amb}}(s)}{\tau s + 1}.$$

Solution sequence:

1. partial fraction expansion of $\tilde{\Theta}$ with real rational elements
2. inverse Laplace transform of each simple fractions
partial fractions are either first- or second-order real-rational elements, whose inverse Laplace transforms we already know; if a pole is not simple, then the t -modulation property of the Laplace transform shall be used

Thermometer model: solution for the step input

If $\tilde{\theta}_{\text{amb}} = \tilde{\theta}_1 \mathbb{1}$ for some $\tilde{\theta}_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\tilde{\Theta}(s) = \frac{\tilde{\theta}_1}{s(\tau s + 1)} = \frac{\text{Res}(\tilde{\Theta}, 0)}{s} + \frac{\text{Res}(\tilde{\Theta}, -1/\tau)}{s + 1/\tau},$$

because both poles are simple. Residues are

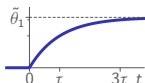
$$\text{Res}(\tilde{\Theta}, 0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \tilde{\Theta}(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tilde{\theta}_1}{\tau s + 1} = \tilde{\theta}_1$$

and

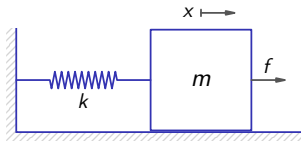
$$\text{Res}(\tilde{\Theta}, -1/\tau) = \lim_{s \rightarrow -1/\tau} (s + 1/\tau) \tilde{\Theta}(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow -1/\tau} \frac{\tilde{\theta}_1}{\tau s} = -\tilde{\theta}_1$$

Thus,

$$\tilde{\Theta}(s) = \frac{\tilde{\theta}_1}{s} - \frac{\tilde{\theta}_1}{s + 1/\tau} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \tilde{\theta}(t) = \tilde{\theta}_1(1 - e^{-t/\tau}) \mathbb{1}(t) =$$



Mass-spring model



Assumptions:

- spring force is proportional to position differences (Hooke's law)
- we may *neglect* friction, force misalignment, etc

Supposing zero spring force at $x = 0$, by Newton's second law

$$m\ddot{x}(t) = f(t) + f_{\text{spring}}(t) = f(t) - kx(t)$$

or, equivalently,

$$m\ddot{x}(t) + kx(t) = f(t).$$

Mass-spring model in the s domain

By the linearity and differentiation properties of the Laplace transform, the model in the s -domain reads as the *algebraic* relation

$$ms^2X(s) + kX(s) = F(s) \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad X(s) = \frac{F(s)}{ms^2 + k}.$$

The denominator polynomial has roots at

$$s_{1,2} = \pm j\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

which are pure imaginary.

Mass-spring model: solution for the step input

If $f = f_1 \mathbb{1}$ for some $f_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$X(s) = \frac{f_1}{s(ms^2 + k)} = \frac{\text{Res}(X, 0)}{s} + \overbrace{\left(\frac{f_1}{s(ms^2 + k)} - \frac{\text{Res}(X, 0)}{s} \right)}^{\text{removable singularity at } s=0},$$

(to avoid dealing with complex poles and residues). The residue at $s = 0$ is

$$\text{Res}(X, 0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_1}{ms^2 + k} = \frac{f_1}{k},$$

so that

$$X(s) = \frac{f_1}{ks} + \left(\frac{f_1}{s(ms^2 + k)} - \frac{f_1}{ks} \right) = \frac{f_1}{k} \left(\frac{1}{s} - \frac{s}{s^2 + k/m} \right)$$

Hence,

$$x(t) = \frac{f_1}{k} (1 - \cos(\sqrt{k/m} t)) \mathbb{1}(t) =$$
