

Linear Systems (034032)

lecture no. 6

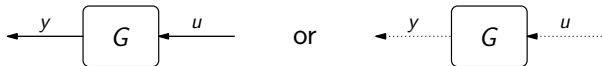
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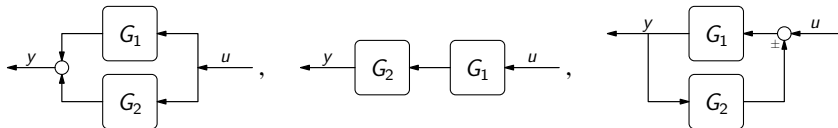


Reminder: systems

- Systems are constraints imposed on interdependent signals of interest.
- I/O systems map input signals (action) to output signals (reaction).
- The relation between signals in a system $G : u \mapsto y$ is denoted $y = Gu$.
- Models are relations between involved signals described by an abstract (mathematical) language under simplifying assumptions.
- Block-diagrams represent information flow in I/O systems, like



and are convenient to visualize interconnected systems



Outline

Some standard systems

Principal properties

LTI systems in the time domain

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Some standard systems

Principal properties

LTI systems in the time domain

Gain

It is a system $u \mapsto y$ such that

$$y = ku$$

for a given gain

- either constant, $k \in \mathbb{R}$
- or varying,
 - $k : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, in the continuous-time case so $y(t) = k(t)u(t)$
 - $k : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, in the discrete-time case so $y[t] = k[t]u[t]$

Think of an amplifier, gearbox, currency converter, ... as examples of such systems.

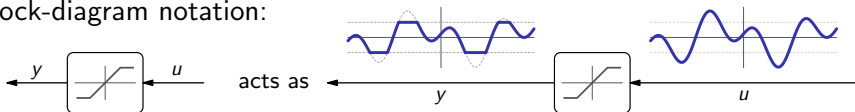
Saturation

It is a system $u \mapsto y$, which we denote $\text{sat}_{[a,b]}$, such that

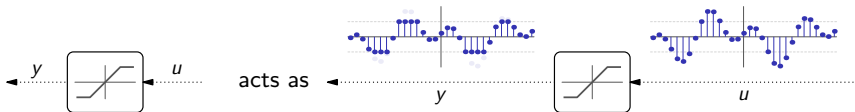
$$y(t) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } u(t) < a \\ u(t) & \text{if } a \leq u(t) \leq b \\ b & \text{if } u(t) > b \end{cases} \quad \text{or} \quad y[t] = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } u[t] < a \\ u[t] & \text{if } a \leq u[t] \leq b \\ b & \text{if } u[t] > b \end{cases}$$

for given $a < b$. We use the short notation $\text{sat}_a := \text{sat}_{[-a,a]}$ for some $a > 0$. Think of a gas pedal in cars, water tap, integer overflow in computers, etc.

Block-diagram notation:



or



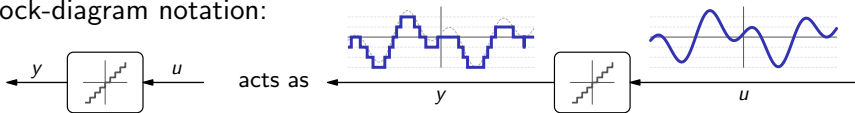
Quantizer

It is a system $u \mapsto y$, which we denote qnt_q , such that

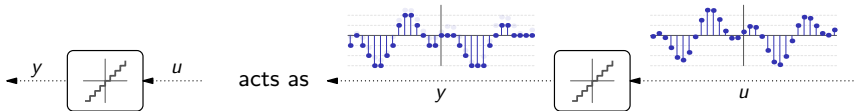
$$y = q \left\lfloor \frac{u}{q} \right\rfloor \quad \text{or, maybe, } y = q \left\lfloor \frac{u}{q} + \frac{1}{2} \right\rfloor$$

for a given threshold $q > 0$. Think of an incremental encoder sensing, finite word-length effects in computers, etc.

Block-diagram notation:



or



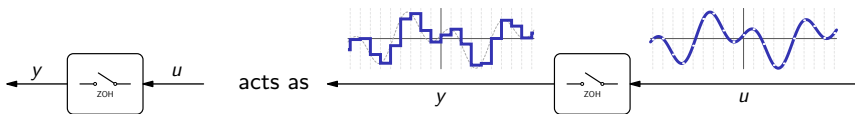
Sample-and-hold

It is a continuous-time system $G_{S\&H} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$y(t) = u\left(\left\lfloor \frac{t}{h} \right\rfloor h\right) \iff y(ih + \tau) = u(ih), \quad \forall \tau \in (0, h)$$

for a given sampling interval $h > 0$. It is a basic block of any sampled-data control / signal processing system.

Block-diagram notation:



Integrator

In **continuous time**: the system $G_{\text{int}} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t u(s) ds$$

Think of a water tank with no outflow, odometer, electricity / water meters, etc

In **discrete time**: the system $G_{\text{int}} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$y[t] = \sum_{s=-\infty}^t u[s]$$

Think of your (well-organized) mail account Inbox, Trash folder, etc.

Finite-memory integrator

In **continuous time**: the system $G_{\text{fmi},\mu} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$y(t) = \int_{t-\mu}^t u(s) ds \quad \text{or} \quad y(t) = \int_{t-\mu(t)}^t u(s) ds$$

for a given $\mu > 0$ or function $\mu : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$. Think of a pipeline (if its content is of interest as the output), vehicle line at a traffic light (abroad), etc.

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

$$y[t] = \sum_{s=t-\mu}^t u[s] \quad \text{or} \quad y[t] = \sum_{s=t-\mu[t]}^t u[s]$$

for some $\mu \in \mathbb{N}$ or function $\mu : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. Think of a circular buffer, a FIFO queue, etc.

First-order system

In **continuous time**: the system $G_{1o} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$\dot{y}(t) + a_0 y(t) = b_0 u(t)$$

for constant real parameters a_0 and $b_0 \neq 0$. Think of a thermometer , spring-damper , and RL -circuit , which we already saw.

In **discrete time**: the system $G_{1o} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$y[t + 1] + a_0 y[t] = b_1 u[t + 1] + b_0 u[t]$$

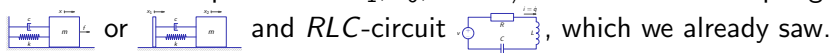
Think of a saving program, loan return, simple population grows model (if the birth and mortality rates are *assumed* to be in constant proportions to the total population and the input is migrations), etc.

Second-order system

In **continuous time**: the system $G_{2o} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$\ddot{y}(t) + a_1\dot{y}(t) + a_0y(t) = b_1\dot{u}(t) + b_0u(t)$$

for constant real parameters a_1 , a_0 , and $b \neq 0$. Think of mass-spring-damper



In **discrete time**: the system $G_{1o} : u \mapsto y$ such that

$$y[t + 2] + a_1y[t + 1] + a_0y[t] = b_2u[t + 2] + b_1u[t + 1] + b_0u[t]$$

Some believe (Keynesian economics) that this is how the GNP evolves as a function of governmental expenditure¹; the Fibonacci sequence is generated by this system², ...

¹With $a_1 = -\alpha(1 + \beta)$, $a_0 = \alpha\beta$, $b_2 = 1$, and $b_1 = b_0 = 0$, where α is the part of the GNP going to consumption and β is the part of the GNP grows invested.

²With $a_1 = a_0 = -1$, $b_2 = b_0 = 0$, $b_1 = 1$, and $u = \delta$.

Delay element

In **continuous time**: the system $\bar{D}_\tau : u \mapsto y$ such that $y = \mathcal{S}_{-\tau}u$, i.e.

$$y(t) = u(t - \tau) \quad \text{or} \quad y(t) = u(t - \tau(t))$$

for a given $\tau > 0$ or function $\tau : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$. Think of a conveyor belt, toaster, satellite transmission, optical fibers, etc.

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for some $\tau \in \mathbb{N}$ or a function $\tau : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. Think of a digital communication channel, exam grading, US presidential inauguration, etc.

Outline

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LTI systems in the time domain

Static & dynamic systems

A system $u \mapsto y$ is said to be **static** if

- y at every time instance t_c can depend only on u at $t = t_c$ and not at $t < t_c$ or $t > t_c$.

Otherwise, i.e. if at some time instances the output may depend on past or future inputs, the system is dubbed **dynamic**. In other words, static systems are memoryless, while dynamic systems have memory.

Examples

→ static systems:

→ dynamic systems:

SISO & MIMO systems

If both u and y are scalar-valued, we say that a system $G : u \mapsto y$ is SISO (single-input/single-output). If either of those signals is vector-valued, then we say that G is MIMO (multiple-input/multiple-output).

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Examples

- static systems: gain, saturation, quantizer
- dynamic systems: integrator, finite-memory integrator, 1- and 2-order systems, delay

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Causality

A system $u \mapsto y$ is said to be **causal** if

- y at every time instance t_c can depend only on u at $t \leq t_c$ and not at $t > t_c$.

Every static system is obviously causal. A formal way to define causality is to require

$$\chi_\tau(Gu) = \chi_\tau(G(\chi_\tau u)), \quad \forall \tau \in \mathbb{R}$$

where the signal $\chi_\tau := \mathcal{S}_{-\tau}(\mathbb{P}_{-1}\mathbb{1}) = \text{---} \begin{array}{|c} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{array} \text{---}$, meaning that inputs at $t > \tau$ do not affect outputs at $t \leq \tau$.

Examples

- causal systems:
- non-causal systems:

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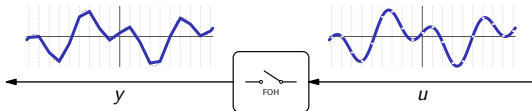
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Examples

- causal systems: everything studied today
- non-causal systems: sample-and-hold with the first-order hold



Linearity

A system $G : u \mapsto y$ is said to be **linear** if

$$G(a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2) = a_1(Gu_1) + a_2(Gu_2)$$

for all admissible inputs u_1 and u_2 and all scalars a_1 and a_2 . In other words, linearity requires **superposition** property to hold.

An alternative definition is

$$G(u_1 + u_2) = Gu_1 + Gu_2 \quad \text{and} \quad G(au) = a(Gu)$$

However, this definition is not sufficient to ensure that the system is linear, since the zero input property must also be satisfied.

Linearity is a very useful property, greatly simplifying the analysis. So it is often assumed, but seldom (if ever) holds in reality.

Still, linear models approximate the nonlinear reality well in many situations.

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Remark. By homogeneity, $u = 0 \implies Gu = 0$ whenever G is linear. In other words, the zero input necessarily produces the zero output.

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Linearity: examples

Integrator:

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_{\text{int}}(a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2) &= \int_{-\infty}^t (a_1 u_1(s) + a_2 u_2(s)) ds \\
 &= a_1 \int_{-\infty}^t u_1(s) ds + a_2 \int_{-\infty}^t u_2(s) ds \\
 &= a_1 (G_{\text{int}} u_1) + a_2 (G_{\text{int}} u_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e. it is linear (as well as finite-memory integrator, 1- and 2-order systems).

Delay:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{D}_\tau(a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2) &= (a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2)(t - \tau) = (a_1 u_1)(t - \tau) + (a_2 u_2)(t - \tau) \\
 &= a_1 u_1(t - \tau) + a_2 u_2(t - \tau) \\
 &= a_1 (\bar{D}_\tau u_1) + a_2 (\bar{D}_\tau u_2)
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Linearity: examples

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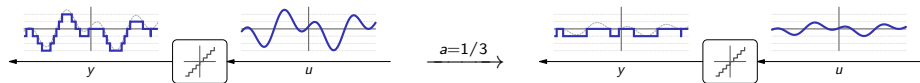
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i.e. it is linear.

Linearity: examples (contd)

Quantizer: cf.



i.e. it is nonlinear because homogeneity does not hold (so is the saturation).

Sample-and-hold:

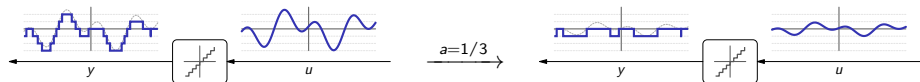
$$\begin{aligned}
 G_{\text{SAH}}(a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2) &= (a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2) \left(\left\lfloor \frac{t}{h} \right\rfloor h \right) = a_1 u_1 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{t}{h} \right\rfloor h \right) + a_2 u_2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{t}{h} \right\rfloor h \right) \\
 &= a_1 (G_{\text{SAH}} u_1) + a_2 (G_{\text{SAH}} u_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e. it is linear, cf.

$$\xrightarrow{a=1/3}$$

Linearity: examples (contd)

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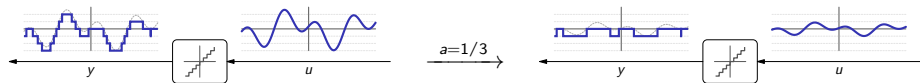
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Linearity: examples (contd)

Quantizer: cf.

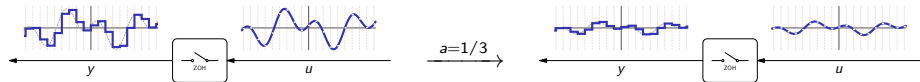


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Time (shift) invariance

A system $G : u \mapsto y$ is said to be **time invariant** (or shift invariant) if

$$G(\mathcal{S}_\tau u) = \mathcal{S}_\tau(Gu)$$

for all admissible inputs u and all $\tau \in \mathbb{R} / \tau \in \mathbb{Z}$. In other words, every time shift of the input results in the same time shift of the output. Otherwise, a system is called time varying. If the property above holds only if $\tau = Tk$ for some $T > 0$ and every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, then G is said to be T -periodic.

If G is both linear and time invariant, it is called **LTI** (linear time invariant).

Time invariance: examples

Gain:

$$(k(\mathcal{S}_\tau u))(t) = k(t)(u(t)|_{t \rightarrow t+\tau}) = k(t)u(t + \tau)$$

$$(\mathcal{S}_\tau(ku))(t) = (k(t)u(t))|_{t \rightarrow t+\tau} = k(t + \tau)u(t + \tau)$$

so it is time invariant iff $k(t + \tau) = k(t)$ for all τ and t , i.e. iff $k = \text{const.}$

Finite-memory integrator: if the memory length μ is constant, then

$$(G_{\text{fmi},\mu}(\mathcal{S}_\tau u))(t) = \int_{t-\mu(t)}^t (u(s)|_{s \rightarrow s+\tau}) ds = \int_{t+\tau-\mu(t)}^{t+\tau} u(s) ds$$

$$(\mathcal{S}_\tau(G_{\text{fmi},\mu} u))(t) = \left(\int_{t-\mu(t)}^t u(s) ds \right) |_{t \rightarrow t+\tau} = \int_{t+\tau-\mu(t+\tau)}^{t+\tau} u(s) ds$$

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1st and 2nd order systems: are time invariant (try to show that)

Time invariance: examples

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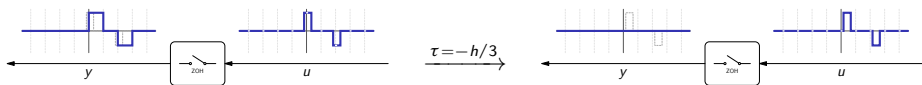
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Time invariance: examples (contd)

Sample-and-hold: cf.



i.e. it is time varying. However, a shift by kh for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ yields

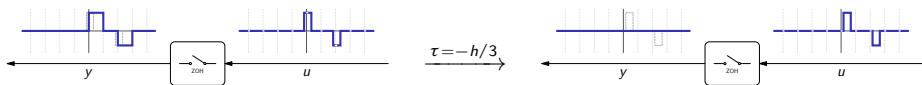
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i.e. it is h -periodic, cf.

$$\tau = 2h$$

Time invariance: examples (contd)

Sample-and-hold: cf.



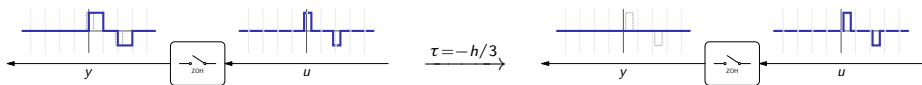
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Time invariance: examples (contd)

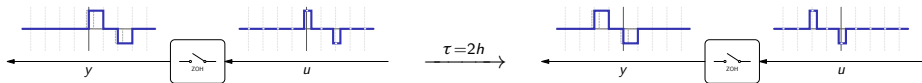
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I/O stability

A continuous-time system $G : u \mapsto y$ is said to be

– **L_q -stable** if there are $\gamma, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\|y\|_q \leq \gamma \|u\|_q + \beta$, $\forall u \in L_q$ for $q \in \{1, 2, \infty\}$. L_q -stability implies that $y \in L_q$ for all $u \in L_q$. L_∞ -stable systems are also known as **BIBO** (bounded input / bounded output) stable.

If G is linear, then we may always take $\beta = 0$ in the stability definition. I.e. a linear system is L_q -stable if $\|y\|_q \leq \gamma \|u\|_q$ for some γ (independent of u). If G is stable, then the smallest γ for which the inequality above holds true is called the **L_q -induced norm** of G ,

$$\|G\|_{\text{ind},q} := \sup_{u \neq 0} \frac{\|Gu\|_q}{\|u\|_q} = \sup_{\|u\|_q=1} \|Gu\|_q.$$

In the discrete-time case, the ℓ_q -stability and ℓ_q -induced norms are defined similarly.

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Stability: examples

Showing that a system is stable, w/o understanding general systems theory, might not be easy. But in some cases it is.

Delay. If $\tau = \text{const}$, then

$$\|y\|_{\infty} = \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} |y(t)| = \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} |u(t - \tau)| = \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} |u(t)| = \|u\|_{\infty}$$

and

$$\|y\|_2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |y(t)|^2 dt = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |u(t - \tau)|^2 dt \Big|_{s=t-\tau} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |u(s)|^2 ds = \|u\|_2$$

Thus, \bar{D}_{τ} with a constant τ is both L_2 - and L_{∞} -stable, with induced norms

$$\|\bar{D}_{\tau}\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = \|\bar{D}_{\tau}\|_{\text{ind},2} = 1.$$

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Remark. Curiously, \bar{D}_{τ} might be L_2 -unstable for varying τ . Try to find an example of $\tau(t)$ for which the delay is unstable and the corresponding destabilizing input.

Stability: examples (contd)

Showing that a system is unstable may be easier. One “just” needs to dream up a destabilizing input.

Integrator. If $u = \mathbb{1} \in L_\infty$, then

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \mathbb{1}(s) ds = \int_0^t ds = t\mathbb{1}(t) = \text{ramp}(t)$$

Because $\text{ramp} \notin L_\infty$, the integrator is not BIBO stable. If $u = \exp_\lambda \mathbb{1} \in L_2$ for some $\lambda < 0$, then

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t e^{\lambda s} \mathbb{1}(s) ds = \int_0^t e^{\lambda s} ds = \left. \frac{e^{\lambda s}}{\lambda} \right|_0^t = \frac{e^{\lambda t} - 1}{\lambda} \mathbb{1}(t)$$

converges to $-\frac{1}{\lambda} \neq 0$ and thus does not belong to L_2 . Thus, the integrator is not L_2 -stable either.

Outline

Some standard systems

Principal properties

LTI systems in the time domain

Response of continuous-time LTI systems

Let $G : u \mapsto y$ be LTI. We know (Lect. 2, Slide 15) that $u = \delta * u$, i.e.

$$u(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t-s)u(s)ds \quad \Longrightarrow \quad u = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\mathcal{S}_{-s}\delta)u(s)ds$$

Passing over convergence-related issues (really delicate), we then have that

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= (Gu)(t) = \left(G \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} (\mathcal{S}_{-s}\delta)u(s)ds \right) \right)(t) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(G(\mathcal{S}_{-s}\delta u(s)) \right)(t)ds && \text{by linearity} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} (G(\mathcal{S}_{-s}\delta))(t)u(s)ds && \text{by linearity, } u(s) \text{ is constant on } t \text{ axis} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\mathcal{S}_{-s}(G\delta))(t)u(s)ds && \text{by time invariance} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} (G\delta)(t-s)u(s)ds \end{aligned}$$

i.e. the relation $y = Gu$ is equivalent to $y = (G\delta) * u$ in the LTI case.

Response of discrete-time LTI systems

Let $G : u \mapsto y$ be LTI. We know (Lect. 2, Slide 28) that $u = \delta * u$, i.e.

$$u[t] = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} \delta[t - s]u[s] \quad \Longrightarrow \quad u = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} (\mathcal{S}_{-s} \delta)u[s]$$

Passing over convergence-related issues (also delicate), we then have that

$$\begin{aligned} y[t] &= (Gu)[t] = \left(G \left(\sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} (\mathcal{S}_{-s} \delta)u[s] \right) \right)[t] \\ &= \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} (G(\mathcal{S}_{-s} \delta u[s]))[t] && \text{by linearity} \\ &= \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} (G(\mathcal{S}_{-s} \delta))[t]u[s] && \text{by linearity, } u[s] \text{ is constant on } t \text{ axis} \\ &= \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} (\mathcal{S}_{-s}(G\delta))[t]u[s] && \text{by time invariance} \\ &= \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} (G\delta)[t - s]u[s] \end{aligned}$$

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The impulse response

The signal

$$g := G\delta$$

which is the response of G to the Dirac delta / unit pulse applied at $t = 0$, is known as the **impulse response of G** . The relation

$$y = Gu \iff y = g * u$$

implies that the processing of every input signal by an LTI system amounts to convolving that input with the impulse response of the system. Thus,

- properties of LTI systems are fully shaped by their impulse responses.

The impulse response: examples

Gain: if G acts as $y(t) = ku(t)$, then $g = k\delta$ (i.e. $g(t) = k\delta(t)$).

Delay: if G acts as $y(t) = u(t - \tau)$, then $g = \mathcal{S}_{-\tau}\delta$ (i.e. $g(t) = \delta(t - \tau)$).

Integrator: G_{int} acts as (cf. Lect. 2, Slide 16)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} y(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^t u(s) ds \\ y[t] &= \sum_{s=-\infty}^t u[s] \end{aligned} \right\} \implies g_{\text{int}} = 1 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \begin{cases} g_{\text{int}}(t) = 1(t) \\ g_{\text{int}}[t] = 1[t] \end{cases}$$

Finite-memory integrator: $G_{\text{fmi},\mu}$ acts as (cf. Lect. 2, Slide 12)

$$y(t) = \int_{t-\mu}^t u(s) ds \implies g_{\text{fmi},\mu} = \mathcal{S}_{-\mu/2} \text{rect}_{\mu} =$$

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The impulse response: examples (contd)

First-order system: if G acts as $\dot{y}(t) + a_0 y(t) = b_0 u(t)$ and $u = \delta$, then we may apply the Laplace transform and get

$$sY(s) + a_0 Y(s) = b_0 \implies Y(s) = \frac{b_0}{s + a_0} \implies y(t) = b_0 e^{-a_0 t} \mathbb{1}(t)$$

i.e. $g_{10} = b_0 \exp_{-a_0} \mathbb{1}$.

If G acts as $y[t+1] + a_0 y[t] = b_1 u[t+1] + b_0 u[t]$ and $u = \delta$, then we may apply the z transform and get $zY(z) + a_0 Y(z) = b_1 z + b_0$, from which

$$Y(z) = \frac{b_1 z + b_0}{z + a_0} = b_1 + (b_0 - b_1 a_0) z^{-1} \frac{z}{z + a_0}$$

and then, by the linearity and time shift properties

$$y[t] = b_1 + (b_0 - b_1 a_0) (-a_0)^{t-1} \mathbb{1}[t-1]$$

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What if G is not LTI

If G is linear, but not time invariant, then the impulse response g is a signal $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{Z}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, with $g(t, s) / g[t, s]$ being the value of the response at the time instance t to an impulse / pulse applied at the time instance s . In this case

$$y(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(t, s)u(s)ds \quad \text{or} \quad y[t] = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} g[t, s]u[s]$$

known as the kernel representation (not convolutions anymore). In terms of this impulse response the time invariance reads $g(t, s) = g(t + \tau, s + \tau)$ for all $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$, so that $g(t, s) = g(t - s, 0)$ (the discrete case is alike).

If G is nonlinear, then no universal representation is known.

Linear systems are all alike; every nonlinear system is nonlinear in its own way.

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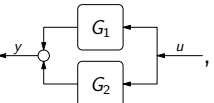
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could have been coined by L.Tolstoy

System interconnections via impulse responses

Parallel: If $G =$ , then $g = g_1 + g_2$
follows by $(x + y) * z = x * z + y * z$

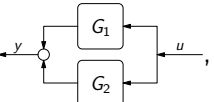
Cascade: If $G =$ , then $g = g_2 * g_1$
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Feedback: If $G =$ , then $g = \frac{g}{1 - g}$

Resolving that equation in y , aka the *deconvolution* operation, is not trivial in terms of signals and results are not quite intuitive.

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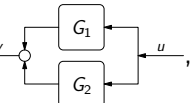
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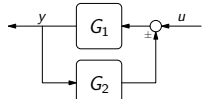
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Cascade: If $G = G_2 \circ G_1$, then $g = g_2 * g_1$
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Causality via impulse responses

Theorem

An LTI system G with the impulse response g is causal iff $\text{supp}(g) \subset \mathbb{R}_+$ in the continuous-time case or $\text{supp}(g) \subset \mathbb{Z}_+$ in the discrete-time case.

Disclaimer. The continuous-time case may be delicate if g includes Dirac deltas. Hereafter we consider that $\text{supp}(\delta) \subset \mathbb{R}_+$, although this statement is mathematically dubious.

Proof (discrete): The response $y = g * u$ reads at every t as

$$y[t] = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} g[t-s]u[s] = \sum_{s=-\infty}^t g[t-s]u[s] + \sum_{s=t+1}^{\infty} g[t-s]u[s]$$

Thus, $y[t]$ cannot depend on $u[s]$ for $s > t$ iff $g[t-s] = 0$ for all $s > t$, i.e. $g[t] = 0$ for all $t < 0$. \square

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Stability via impulse responses

Theorem

An LTI system G with the impulse response g is BIBO stable iff $g \in L_1$ in the continuous-time case or $g \in \ell_1$ in the discrete-time case. If G is BIBO stable, then $\|G\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = \|g\|_1$.

Disclaimer. The continuous-time case may be delicate if g includes Dirac deltas here as well. Strictly speaking, δ is not a function. A more rigorous approach would be to limit the class of considered systems to those, whose impulse response could be decomposed in the form $g = \tilde{g} + \sum_i \gamma[i] \mathcal{S}_{t_i} \delta$ for some function \tilde{g} and an increasing sequence of time instances $\{t_i\}$. Such systems are BIBO stable iff $\tilde{g} \in L_1$ and $\gamma \in \ell_1$. Nonetheless, we proceed with regarding the Dirac delta as absolutely integrable, merely to simplify the exposition.

Stability via impulse responses

Theorem

An LTI system G with the impulse response g is BIBO stable iff $g \in L_1$ in the continuous-time case or $g \in \ell_1$ in the discrete-time case. If G is BIBO stable, then $\|G\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = \|g\|_1$.

Disclaimer. The continuous-time case may be delicate if g includes Dirac deltas here as well. Strictly speaking, δ is not a function. A more rigorous approach would be to limit the class of considered systems to those, whose impulse response could be decomposed in the form $g = \tilde{g} + \sum_i \gamma[i] \mathfrak{S}_{t_i} \delta$ for some function \tilde{g} and an increasing sequence of time instances $\{t_i\}$. Such systems are BIBO stable iff $\tilde{g} \in L_1$ and $\gamma \in \ell_1$. Nonetheless, we proceed with regarding the Dirac delta as absolutely integrable, merely to simplify the exposition.

Remark 1. The mere decaying of g might not be enough for the BIBO stability of G . For example, if $g(t) = 1/(1+t) \mathbb{1}(t)$ and $u = \mathbb{1} \in L_\infty$, then for all $t \geq 0$

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \frac{1}{1+t-s} \mathbb{1}(t) ds = \int_0^t \frac{1}{1+t-s} ds = -\ln(1+t-s) \Big|_0^t = \ln(1+t)$$

and it is not bounded. Hence, this system is not BIBO stable (and indeed, this $g \notin L_1$).

Remark 2. The L_2 -stability is not easy to verify directly in terms of the impulse response.

Stability via impulse responses: proof (discrete)

Sufficiency: If $g \in \ell_1$, then for every $u \in \ell_\infty$

$$\begin{aligned} |y[t]| &= \left| \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} g[t-s]u[s] \right| \leq \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} |g[t-s]u[s]| \leq \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} |g[t-s]| |u[s]| \\ &\leq \|u\|_\infty \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} |g[t-s]| \Big|_{r=t-s} = \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z}} |g[r]| \|u\|_\infty = \|g\|_1 \|u\|_\infty \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\|y\|_\infty \leq \gamma \|u\|_\infty$ for $\gamma = \|g\|_1 < \infty$ and the system is BIBO stable.

Necessity: Choose $u = \text{sign}(P_{-1}g)$, i.e. $u[t] = \text{sign}(g[-t])$. Its $\|u\|_\infty = 1$ so $u \in \ell_\infty$. With this choice,

$$y[0] = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} g[-s]u[s] = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} g[-s]\text{sign}(g[-s]) = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} |g[-s]| = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}} |g[s]|$$

and $g \in \ell_1$ is necessary for the boundedness of $y[0]$ and, therefore, that of $\|y\|_\infty \geq |y[0]|$. This also proves the $\|G\|_{\ell_\infty, \ell_\infty}$ part. \square

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and $g \in \ell_1$ is necessary for the boundedness of $y[0]$ and, therefore, that of $\|y\|_\infty \geq |y[0]|$. This also proves the $\|G\|_{\text{ind},\infty}$ part. \square

Stability via impulse responses: examples

Integrator: $g_{\text{int}} = \mathbb{1} \notin L_1$, with agrees with what we already saw.

Finite-memory integrator: $g_{\text{fmi},\mu} = S_{-\mu/2} \text{rect}_\mu \in L_1$, i.e. it is BIBO stable, with $\|G_{\text{fmi},\mu}\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = \|g_{\text{fmi},\mu}\|_1 = \mu$

First-order system (in continuous time): $\dot{y}(t) + a_0 y(t) = b_0 u(t)$

$$g_{\text{fo}} = b_0 \exp_{-a_0} \mathbb{1} \in L_1 \iff a_0 > 0$$

i.e. it's BIBO stable iff $a_0 > 0$, with $\|G_{\text{fo}}\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = \frac{1}{a_0}$ (cf. Lect. 2, Slide 16).

First-order system (in discrete time): $y[t+1] + a_0 y[t] = b_1 u[t+1] + b_0 u[t]$

$$g_{\text{fo}} = b_1 \delta + (b_0 - b_1 a_0) S_{-1}(\exp_{-a_0} \mathbb{1}) \in \ell_1 \iff |a_0| < 1$$

i.e. it's BIBO stable iff $|a_0| < 1$, with (cf. Lect. 2, Slide 20)

$$\|G_{\text{fo}}\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = |b_1| + \frac{|b_0 - b_1 a_0|}{1 - |a_0|}$$

Stability via impulse responses: examples

Integrator: $g_{\text{int}} = \mathbb{1} \notin L_1$, with agrees with what we already saw.

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First-order system (in continuous time): $y(t) + a_0 y(t) = b_0 u(t)$

$$g_{10} = b_0 \exp_{-a_0} \mathbb{1} \in L_1 \iff a_0 > 0$$

i.e. it's BIBO stable iff $a_0 > 0$, with $\|G_{10}\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = \frac{1}{a_0}$ (cf. Ex. 2, Slide 10)

First-order system (in discrete time): $y[t+1] + a_0 y[t] = b_1 u[t+1] + b_0 u[t]$

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First-order system (in continuous time): $\dot{y}(t) + a_0 y(t) = b_0 u(t)$

$$g_{1o} = b_0 \exp_{-a_0} \mathbb{1} \in L_1 \iff a_0 > 0$$

i.e. it's BIBO stable iff $a_0 > 0$, with $\|G_{1o}\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = \frac{1}{a_0}$ (cf. Lect. 2, Slide 19).

First-order system (in discrete time): $y[t+1] + a_0 y[t] = b_1 u[t+1] + b_0 u[t]$

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i.e. it's BIBO stable iff $|a_0| < 1$, with (cf. Lect. 2, Slide 30)

$$\|G_{1o}\|_{\text{ind},\infty} = |b_1| + \frac{|b_0 - b_1 a_0|}{1 - |a_0|}$$