EC ENGR 102 Week 9

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Laplace Transform of the Unit Step

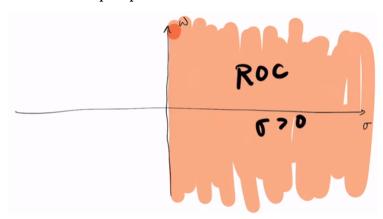
Let f(t) = u(t).

$$F(s) = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} u(t) \cdot e^{-st} dt$$
$$= \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} e^{-st} dt$$
$$= -\frac{1}{s} e^{-st} \Big|_{0}^{\infty}$$
$$= (0) - (-\frac{1}{s} e^{-s-0})$$
$$= \frac{1}{s}$$

as long as $e^{-st} \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$

• In this case, the R.O.C. (region of convergence): $Re(s) = \sigma > 0$

What is the ROC of the unit step Laplace transform?



- This R.O.C. does NOT contain the $j\omega$ axis $(\sigma = 0)$.
- As a result, the Fourier transform is different from the Laplace transform for the unit step, since if $\sigma = 0$ in the Laplace transform, the integral does not converge.
- The Laplace and Fourier transforms are similar though.

- Fourier transform of unit step is:

$$\mathcal{F}[u(t)] = \pi \delta(\omega) + \frac{1}{j\omega}$$

- This is similar to the Laplace transform with $s = j\omega$, but with the additional $\pi\delta(\omega)$ term.

Laplace Transform of Cosine

$$f(t) = \cos(\omega t)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} [e^{j\omega t} + e^{-j\omega t}]$$

Then,

$$F(s) = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{2} \left[e^{j\omega t} + e^{-j\omega t} \right] e^{-st} dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty e^{(-s+j\omega)t} + e^{(-s-j\omega)t} dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{s-j\omega} + \frac{1}{s+j\omega} \right)$$

$$= \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

• Note that in the final equation, the ω and the $j\omega$ within the s are different ω 's. The ω present in the final equation is the ω of the cosine function. The one contained in the s is the Fourier transform variable.

The region of convergence is for when $e^{(-s\pm j\omega)t} \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$ and thus is mathfrak R(s) > 0. Like the unit step, the Laplace and Foruier transforms disagree, as the Laplace region of convergence does not include the $j\omega$ axis.

Laplace Transform of Powers of t

Let $f(t) = t^n$, for $n \ge 1$. Then,

$$F(s) = \int_0^\infty t^n e^{st} dt$$

Integrate by parts: $u(t) = t^n$, $v'(t) = e^{-st}$, $u'(t) = nt^{n-1}$, and $v = -\frac{1}{s}e^{-st}$.

$$\mathcal{L}[t^n] = -\frac{t^n e^{-st}}{s} \Big|_{t=0}^{t=\infty} + \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{s} e^{-st} \cdot n \cdot t^{n-1} dt$$
$$= \frac{-(\infty)^n e^{-s \cdot \infty}}{s} - \left(-\frac{0^n \cdot e^0}{s}\right) + \frac{n}{s} \int_0^\infty t^{n-1} e^{-st} dt$$

 $t^n e^{-st} \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$ as long as $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma$ is greater than zero. (R.O.C. $\sigma > 0$)

$$= \frac{n}{s} \int_0^\infty t^{n-1} e^{-st} dt$$
$$= \frac{n}{s} \cdot \mathcal{L}[t^{n-1}]$$

Now, we have a recursive equation.

$$\mathcal{L}[t^n] = \frac{n}{s} \mathcal{L}[t^{n-1}]$$

By inspection, we get $\mathcal{L}[1]$ when n=1, which is just the unit step. The first few n terms would be:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}[t^0] &= \frac{1}{s} \\ \mathcal{L}[t^1] &= \frac{1}{s} \cdot \mathcal{L}[t^0] = \frac{1}{s^2} \\ \mathcal{L}[t^2] &= \frac{2}{s} \cdot \mathcal{L}[t^1] = \frac{2}{s^3} \end{split}$$

We can simplify this series to

$$\mathcal{L}[t^n] = \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}$$

The region of convergence for this Laplace transform is R.O.C. $\sigma > 0$.

• For this class, we assume that n is an integer. We will not go into what happens if n is not an integer; probably there will be a Γ function involved.

Laplace Transform of the Impulse

Let $f(t) = \delta(t)$. Then,

$$F(s) = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \delta(t)e^{-st}dt$$
$$= e^{-s \cdot 0}$$
$$= 1$$

Thus,

$$\mathcal{L}[\delta(t)] = 1$$

Pattern for Integration and Differentiation?

Notice the following trends:

$$\begin{split} \delta(t) &\iff & 1 \\ u(t) &\iff & \frac{1}{s} \\ tu(t) &\iff & \frac{1}{s^2} \\ \frac{1}{2} t^2 u(t) &\iff & \frac{1}{s^3} \\ \frac{1}{6} t^3 u(t) &\iff & \frac{1}{s^4} \end{split}$$

We see a clear pattern: differentiating a signal is equivalent to multiplying the Laplace transform by s while integrating is equivalent to multiplying the Laplace transform by 1/s.

Review: Basic Laplace Transforms:

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{at}u(t)] = \frac{1}{a+s} \qquad \text{as long as } \sigma > -a$$

$$u(t) \Longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{s} \qquad \qquad \Re(s) > 0$$

$$\cos(\omega t) \Longleftrightarrow \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2} \qquad \qquad \Re(s) > 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}[t^n] = \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}} \qquad \qquad \Re(s) > 0$$

Laplace Transform Properties (copied from last week)

1. Linearity:

$$\mathcal{L}[af_1(t) + bf_2(t)] = aF_1(s) + bF_2(s)$$

 $\Re(s) > 0$

2. Time scaling:

$$\mathcal{L}[f(at)] = \frac{1}{a}F\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$$

3. Time shift:

$$\mathcal{L}[f(t-T)] = e^{-sT}F(s)$$

4. Frequency shift:

$$\mathcal{L}[f(t)e^{s_0t} = F(s - s_0)]$$

5. Convolution:

$$\mathcal{L}[f_1(t) * f_2(t) = F_1(s)F_2(s)]$$

6. Integration:

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau\right] = \frac{1}{s} F(s)$$

7. Derivative:

$$\mathcal{L}[f'(t)] = sF(s) - f(0)$$

8. Multiplication by t:

$$\mathcal{L}[tf(t)] = -F'(s)$$

Time Scaling Property

$$\mathcal{L}[f(at)] = \frac{1}{a}F\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$$

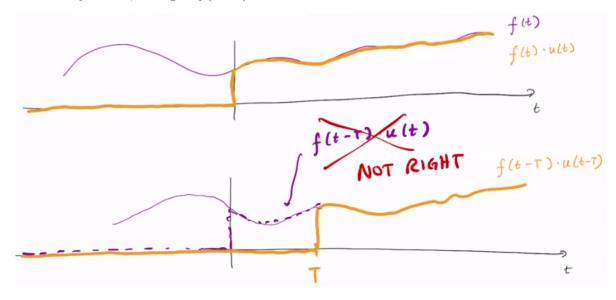
- Note, we only consider a > 0, since if a < 0 and f(t) is a causal signal, then f(at) would be anticausal. The unilateral Laplace transform is for causal signals only.
- \bullet This is the reason why the a does not have an absolute value like the Fourier transform equation.

4

Time Shift Property

Let $f(t) \iff F(s)$. If we delay a signal by T, i.e., f(t-T), then we proceed with the understanding that:

- T > 0, since if T < 0, the signal would be noncausal.
- For delays T > 0, the signal f(t T) is zero in the interval from 0 to T.



Integration Property

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau\right] = \frac{1}{s} F(s)$$

To derive this, we use the convolution theorem.

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau\right] = \mathcal{L}[f(t) * u(t)]$$
$$= \mathcal{L}[f(t)]\mathcal{L}[u(t)]$$
$$= \frac{1}{s}F(s)$$

Differentiation Property

Let f'(t) be the derivative of f(t) with respect to time. Then,

$$\mathcal{L}[f'(t)] = \int_0^\infty f'(t)e^{-st}dt$$

Integrating by parts, we set $u = e^{-st}$ and v' = f'(t). Then, $u' = -se^{-st}$ and v = f(t). Hence,

$$\mathcal{L}[f'(t)] = \int_0^\infty f'(t)e^{-st}dt$$

$$= f(t)e^{-st}|_0^\infty + \int_0^\infty se^{-st}f(t)dt$$

$$= -f(0) + sF(s)$$

if $e^{-st} \to 0$ (R.O.C. $\sigma > 0$) as $t \to \infty$. Hence,

$$\mathcal{L}[f'(t)] = sF(s) - f(0)$$

Multiplication by t

If $f(t) \iff F(s)$, then we can differentiate both sides to see that:

$$F(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt$$
$$F'(s) = \int_0^\infty (-t)e^{-st} f(t) dt$$
$$= \mathcal{L}[-tf(t)]$$

Hence,

$$\mathcal{L}[tf(t)] = -F'(s)$$

General Laplace Transforms

g(t)	G(s)
$\int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau$	$\frac{1}{s}F(s)$
f(t)	F(s)
f'(t)	sF(s) - f(0)
f''(t)	$s^2F(s) - sf(0) - f'(0)$

More examples: Laplace Transform of Sine

We know that

$$\cos(\omega t) \Longleftrightarrow \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

We can write the sine function in terms of cosine:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\cos(\omega t) = -\sin(\omega t) \cdot \omega \Longrightarrow \sin(\omega t) = -\frac{1}{\omega} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\cos(\omega t)$$

Therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}[\sin(\omega t)] = -\frac{1}{\omega} \mathcal{L} \left[\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \cos(\omega t) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\omega} \left[s \cdot \mathcal{L}[\cos(\omega t)] - \cos(\omega \cdot 0) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\omega} \left[\frac{s^2}{s^2 + \omega^2} - 1 \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\omega} \left[\frac{-\omega^2}{s^2 + \omega^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

Laplace Transform to Solve Differential Equations

Suppose we want to solve the differential equation

$$y'(t) + y(t) = u(t)$$
 where $y(0) = 0$

First, we can take the Laplace transform of both sides:

$$sY(s) - y(0) + Y(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

Simplifying,

$$sY(s) - y(0) + Y(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

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

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

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

Therefore, (refer to Laplace pairs; $u(t) \Longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{s}$)

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}[Y(s)] = u(t) - e^{-t}u(t)$$

So,

$$y(t) = 1 - e^{-t} \qquad \text{for } t \ge 0$$

Key Take-home Point:

With Laplace Transform, differential equations are turned into algebraic equations.

$$y(t) = (h * x)(t) \Longleftrightarrow Y(s) = H(s)X(s) \Longrightarrow H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)}$$

H(s) is known as the "transfer function".

General Method to Solve Any-Order Differential Equations

Suppose $y^{(k)}(t) = \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k}$, and all initial conditions are zero. Then,

$$a_n y^{(n)}(t) + a_{n-1} y^{(n-1)}(t) + \dots + a_1 y^{(1)}(t) + a_0 y(t) = b_m x^{(m)}(t) + b_m x^{(m-1)}(t) + \dots + b_m x^{(1)}(t) + b_0 x(t)$$

$$\downarrow \mathcal{L}$$

$$a_n \cdot s^n Y(s) + a_{n-1} \cdot s^{n-1} Y(s) + \dots + a_1 \cdot s Y(s) + a_0 Y(s) = b_m s^m X(s) + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} X(s) + \dots + b_1 s \cdot X(s) + b_0 X(1)$$

$$H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{b_m s^m + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} + \dots + b_1 s + b_0}{a_n s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 s + a_0}$$

Inverse Laplace Transforms We Should Know

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{-at}u(t)] = \frac{1}{a+s}$$

$$\mathcal{L}[\cos(\omega t)] = \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}[\sin(\omega t)] = \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{-at}\cos(\omega t)] = \frac{(s+a)}{(s+a)^2 + \omega^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{-at}\sin(\omega t)] = \frac{\omega}{(s+a)^2 + \omega^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{r}{(s-\lambda)^k}\right] = \frac{r}{(k-1)!}t^{k-1}e^{\lambda t}$$

Partial Fraction Expansion

Let

$$F(s) = \frac{b(s)}{a(s)} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 s + \dots + b_m s^m}{a_0 + a_1 s + \dots + a_n s^n}$$

From the fundamental theorem of algegra,

- b(s) has m roots (called "zeros" of F(s), since if $b(s) = 0 \Rightarrow F(s) = 0$)
- a(s) has n roots (called "poles" of F(s), since if $a(s) = 0 \Rightarrow F(s) \to \infty$)

For partial fraction expansion, let's first assume that no poles are repeated and that m < n (i.e., more poles than zeros = "proper" rational function). Then, F(s) can be written in its partial fraction expansion:

$$F(s) = \frac{r_1}{s - \lambda_1} + \dots + \frac{r_n}{s - \lambda_n}$$

where

- $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ are the poles of F.
- The numbers r_1, \ldots, r_n are called residues
- It turns out when $\lambda_k = \lambda_l^*$, then $r_k = r_l^*$.
- Note the poles can be complex numbers

Inversion of a Partial Fraction

In partial fraction form, inverting the Laplace transform is easy because

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}[F(s)] = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[\frac{r_1}{s - \lambda_1} + \dots + \frac{r_n}{s - \lambda_n} \right]$$

$$= r_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{s - \lambda_1} \right] + \dots + r_n \cdot \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{s - \lambda_n} \right]$$

$$= r_1 \cdot e^{-\lambda_1 t} + r_2 \cdot e^{-\lambda_2 t} + \dots + r_n \cdot e^{-\lambda_n t} \quad \text{for } t \ge 0$$

How to Find the Partial Fraction Expansion

To find the partial fraction expansion, we

- Find the polds $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$, which means we find the zeros of a(s).
- Find the residues of r_1, \ldots, r_n

There are several methods to calculate partial fraction expansions.

Method 1: Partial Fractions via Solving Linear Equations

- No one actually uses this method, because Method 2 is just better. However, it is here for completion.
- In this method, we factor a(s) to find the poles, then solve linear equations to find the residues. Say m=2 and n=3. Then,

$$\frac{b_0 + b_1 s + b_2 s^2}{(s - \lambda_1)(s - \lambda_2)(s - \lambda_3)} = \frac{r_1}{s - \lambda_1} + \frac{r_2}{s - \lambda_2} + \frac{r_3}{s - \lambda_3}$$

First, we clear the denominators by multiplying both sides by

$$(s-\lambda_1)(s-\lambda_2)(s-\lambda_3)$$

This gives:

$$b_0 + b_1 s + b_2 s^2 = r_1(s - \lambda_2)(s - \lambda_3) + r_2(s - \lambda_1)(s - \lambda_3) + r_3(s - \lambda_1)(s - \lambda_2)$$

At this point, we equate the coefficients of each power of s.

$$b_0 + b_1 s + b_2 s^2 = r_1 (s - \lambda_2)(s - \lambda_3) + r_2 (s - \lambda_1)(s - \lambda_3) + r_3 (s - \lambda_1)(s - \lambda_2)$$

$$= r_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 + r_2 \lambda_1 \lambda_3 + r_3 \lambda_1 \lambda_2 + \dots$$

$$+ s[r_1 (-\lambda_3 - \lambda_2) + r_2 (-\lambda_3 - \lambda_1) + r_3 (-\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)]$$

$$+ s^2 [r_1 + r_2 + r_3]$$

Thus,

$$b_2 = r_1 + r_2 + r_3$$

$$b_1 = r_1(-\lambda_3 - \lambda_2) + r_2(-\lambda_3 - \lambda_1) + r_3(-\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)$$

$$b_0 = r_1\lambda_2\lambda_3 + r_2\lambda_1\lambda_3 + r_3\lambda_1\lambda_2$$

Now we have n poles and n equations for n unknowns.

Method 2: Partial Fractions via the "Cover-Up" Procedure

Here, we solve for each residual individually in the following way. E.g., to get r_1 , we first multiply both sides by $(s - \lambda_1)$.

$$\frac{b_0 + b_1 s + b_2 s^2}{(s - \lambda_1)(s - \lambda_2)(s - \lambda_3)} = \frac{r_1}{s - \lambda_1} + \frac{r_2}{s - \lambda_2} + \frac{r_3}{s - \lambda_3}$$

becomes

$$\frac{(s-\lambda_1)(b_0+b_1s+b_2s^2)}{(s-\lambda_1)(s-\lambda_2)(s-\lambda_3)} = r_1 + \frac{r_2(s-\lambda_1)}{s-\lambda_2} + \frac{r_3(s-\lambda_1)}{s-\lambda_3}$$

Now, we set $s = \lambda_1$ to get:

$$r_1 = \frac{b_0 + b_1 \cdot \lambda_1 + b_2 \cdot \lambda_1^2}{(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)(\lambda_1 - \lambda_3)}$$

In general,

$$r_k = (s - \lambda_k)F(s)\big|_{s=\lambda k}$$

Example: Let's find the partial fraction expansion of:

$$\frac{s^2 - 2}{s(s+1)(s+2)} = \frac{r_1}{s} + \frac{r_2}{s+1} + \frac{r_3}{s+2}$$

$$r_1 = \frac{s^2 - 2}{(s+1)(s+2)} \Big|_{s=0} = \frac{(0)^2 - 2}{(0+1)(0+2)} = -1$$

$$r_2 = \frac{s^2 - 2}{(s)(s+2)} \Big|_{s=-1} = \frac{1-2}{(-1)(1)} = 1$$

$$r_3 = \frac{s^2 - 2}{(s)(s+1)} \Big|_{s=-2} = \frac{4-2}{-2(-1)} = 1$$

Therefore,

$$F(s) = \frac{s^2 - 2}{s(s+1)(s+2)} = -\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s+1} + \frac{1}{s+2}$$

Method 3: Partial Fractions via L'Hopital's Rule

Another way to find the kth residual is to calculate:

$$r_k = \frac{b(\lambda_k)}{a'(\lambda_k)}$$

The idea behind this approach is to still use the cover-up method (i.e., multiply the partial fraction expansion by $(s - \lambda_k)$) and set s to λ_k . This technique finds another formula for the residual.

$$r_k = \lim_{s \to \lambda_k} \frac{(s - \lambda_k)b(s)}{a(s)}$$

Expanding,

$$= \lim_{s \to \lambda_k} \frac{s \cdot b(s) - \lambda_k \cdot b(s)}{a(s)}$$

$$= \lim_{s \to \lambda_k} \frac{s \cdot b'(s) + 1 \cdot b(s) - \lambda_k \cdot b'(s)}{a'(s)}$$

$$= \lim_{s \to \lambda_k} \frac{b'(s)(s - \lambda_k) + b(s)}{a'(s)}$$

$$= \frac{b(\lambda_k)}{a'(\lambda_k)}$$

Example: Let's do the same example as in Method 2:

$$\frac{s^2 - 2}{s(s+1)(s+2)} = \frac{s^2 - 2}{s^3 + 3s^2 + 2s}$$

Differentiating the denominator, we get:

$$a'(s) = 3s^2 + 6s + 2$$

Therefore,

$$r_1 = \frac{s^2 - 2}{3s^2 + 6s + 2} \bigg|_{s=0} = \frac{-2}{2} = -1$$

$$r_2 = \frac{s^2 - 2}{3s^2 + 6s + 2} \bigg|_{s=-1} = \frac{1 - 2}{3 - 6 + 2} = 1$$

$$r_3 = \frac{s^2 - 2}{3s^2 + 6s + 2} \bigg|_{s=-2} = \frac{4 - 2}{12 - 12 + 2} = 1$$

ODE Example

Let's solve the following ODE:

$$v'''(t) - v(t) = 0$$

where

- v(0) = 1
- v'(0) = 0
- v''(0) = 0

Following the General Laplace Transform list, we get

$$f'''(t) \iff s \cdot (s^2 F(s) - sf(0) - f'(0)) - f''(0)$$
$$= s^3 F(s) - s^2 f(0) - sf'(0) = f''(0)$$

Therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}[v'''(t)] = s^3 V(s) - -s^2 v(0) - sv'(0) - v''(0)$$

= $s^3 V(s) - s^2$

From our equation, we get:

$$s^{3}V(s) - s^{2} - V(s) = 0$$

$$V(s)(s^{3} - 1) = s^{2}$$

$$V(s) = \frac{s^{2}}{s^{3} - 1}$$

Now, we do partial fraction decomposition.