

### Motivation for the Laplace Transform

• The CT Fourier transform enables us to:

- Solve linear constant coefficient differential equations (LCCDE);
- $x(t) = RC\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + LC\frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2} + y(t)$ • Analyze the frequency response of LTI systems;
- Analyze and understand the implications of sampling;
- Why do we need another transform?
- The Fourier transform cannot handle **unstable signals**: (Recall this is related to the fact that the **eigenfunction**,  $e^{iat}$ , has unit amplitude,  $|e^{j\omega t}| = 1$ .
- There are many problems in which we desire to analyze and control unstable systems (e.g., the space shuttle, oscillators, lasers).
- Consider the simple unstable system:
  - $\int |x(t)|dt = \infty$ x(t)CT LTI This is an unstable causal system. h(t)
- We cannot analyze its behavior using:  $Y(e^{j\omega}) = X(e^{j\omega})H(e^{j\omega})$
- Note however we can use time domain techniques such as convolution and differential equations.



y(t)

MFG3922 - Analysis Methods for Geophysics I

# The Bilateral (Two-sided) Laplace Transform

• Recall **the eigenfunction property** of an LTI system:



- e<sup>st</sup> is an **eigenfunction** of any LTI system.
- s can be **complex**:  $s = \sigma + j\omega$
- $H(s) = \int_{0}^{\infty} h(t)e^{-st} dt$  (assuming convergenc e)
- We can define the bilateral, or two-sided, Laplace transform:
- Several important observations are:
- Can be viewed as a generalization of the Fourier transform:
- •X(s) generally exists for a certain range of values of s. We refer to this as the region of convergence (ROC). Note that this only depends on  $\sigma$  and not  $\omega$ .
- If  $s = j\omega$  is in the ROC (i.e.,  $\sigma = 0$ ), then:

$$\mathcal{L}\{x(t)\}\big|_{s=i\omega} = X(s)\big|_{s=i\omega} = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)\}$$

$$X(\sigma + j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-(\sigma + j\omega)t}dt$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x(t)e^{-\sigma t})e^{-j\omega t}dt = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)e^{-\sigma t}\}$$
$$ROC \in \left\{\sigma + j\omega \ni \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)e^{-\sigma t}|dt < \infty\right\}$$

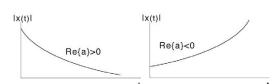
 $x(t) \leftrightarrow X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st}dt = \mathcal{L}\{x(t)\}$ 

$$ROC \in \left\{ \sigma + j\omega \ni \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)e^{-\sigma t}| dt < \infty \right\}$$

and there is a clear relationship between the Laplace and Fourier transforms.

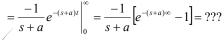
### **Example: A Right-Sided Signal**

• Example:  $x_1(t) = e^{-at}u(t)$  where a is an arbitrary real or complex number.



• Solution:

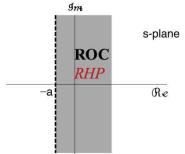
$$X_{1}(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-at} u(t)e^{-st} dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-at} e^{-st} dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-(s+a)t} dt$$
$$= \frac{-1}{s} e^{-(s+a)t} \Big|_{0}^{\infty} = \frac{-1}{s} \Big[ e^{-(s+a)\infty} - 1 \Big] = ???$$



This **converges** only if:

 $\Re(s + a) > 0 \Rightarrow \Re(s) > -\Re(a)$ and we can write:

$$X_1(s) = \frac{1}{s+a} \quad \text{when} \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -\text{Re}\{a\}$$



ROC

• The ROC can be visualized using s-plane plot shown above. The shaded region defines the values of s for which the Laplace transform exists. The **ROC** is a very importance property of **a two-sided Laplace transform**.

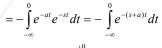
#### **Example: A Left-Sided Signal**

• Example: 
$$x_2(t) = -e^{-at}u(-t)$$

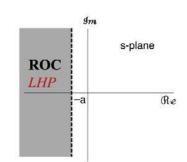
• Solution:

Solution:  

$$X_2(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -e^{-at}u(-t)e^{-st}dt$$



$$= \frac{1}{s+a} e^{-(s+a)t} \Big|_{-\infty}^{0} = \frac{1}{s+a} \left[ 1 - e^{(s+a)\infty} \right] = ???$$



lx(t)l

Re{a}<0

lx(t)l

Re{a}>0

This converges only if:

$$\Re\{s+a\} < 0 \Rightarrow \Re\{s\} < -\Re\{a\}$$

and we can write:

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+a} \quad \text{when} \quad \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -\operatorname{Re}\{a\}$$

#### ROC

• The transform is the same but the ROC is different. This is a major difference from the Fourier transform – we need both the transform and the ROC to uniquely specify the signal. The FT does not have an ROC issue.

### Rational Transforms

7

• Many transforms of interest to us will be **ratios of polynomials** in s, which we refer to as a **rational transform**:

$$H(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$$
 where  $N(s) = b_0 + b_1 s + b_2 s^2 + ...$   $D(s) = 1 + a_1 s + a_2 s^2 + ...$ 

- The zeroes of the polynomial, N(s), are called **zeroes** of H(s).
- The zeroes of the polynomial, D(s), are called **poles** of H(s).
- Any signal that is a sum of (complex) one-sided exponentials can be expressed as a rational transform. Examples include circuit analysis.

• Example:  $x(t) = 3e^{2t}u(t) - 2e^{-t}u(t)$ 

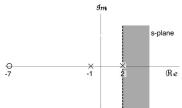
$$X(s) = \int_{0}^{\infty} (3e^{2t} - 2e^{-t})e^{-st} dt$$

$$= 3\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-(s-2)t} dt - 2\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-(s+1)t} dt$$

$$= \frac{3}{s-2} \Big|_{0}^{\infty} - \frac{2}{s+1} \Big|_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1^{st} \text{ term : Re}\{s\} > 2}{2^{nd} \text{ term : Re}\{s\} > -1}$$

$$= \frac{3}{s-2} - \frac{2}{s+1} = \frac{s+7}{(s-2)(s+1)} \text{ Re}\{s\} > 2$$

zero poles



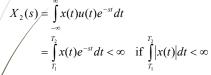
 Does this signal have a Fourier transform?

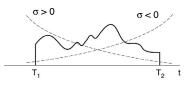
# Properties of the ROC

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- There are some signals, particularly **two-sided signals** such as  $x(t) = e^t$  and  $x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t}$  that **do not have Laplace transforms**.
- The ROC typically assumes a few simple shapes. It is usually the intersection of lines parallel to the imaginary axis. Why?
- For rational transforms, the ROC does not include any poles. Why?

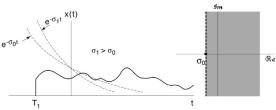
• If x(t) is of finite duration and absolutely integrable, its ROC is the complete s-plane.

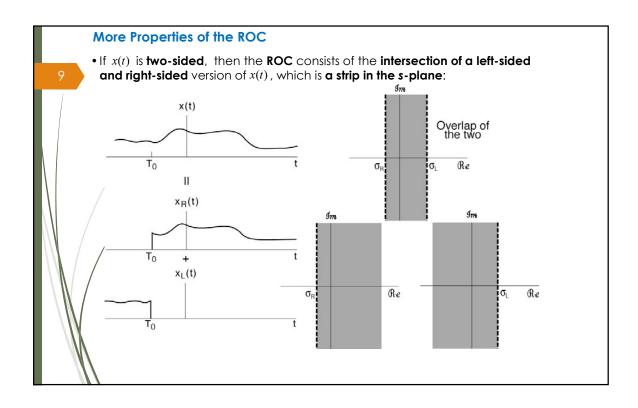


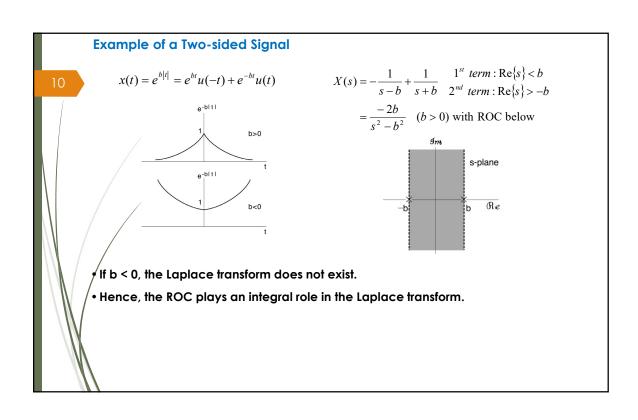


If x(t) is **right-sided**, and if  $\sigma_0$  is in the ROC, all points to the right of  $\sigma_0$  are in the ROC.

• If x(t) is left-sided, points to the left of  $\sigma_0$  are in the ROC.



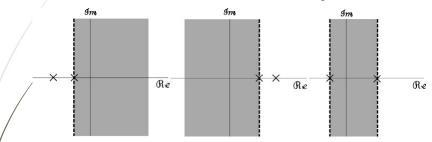




### > ROC for Rational Transforms

11

- Since the ROC cannot include poles, the ROC is bounded by the poles for a rational transform.
- If x(t) is right-sided, the ROC begins to the right of the rightmost pole. If x(t) is left-sided, the ROC begins to the left of the leftmost pole. If x(t) is double-sided, the ROC will be the intersection of these two regions.

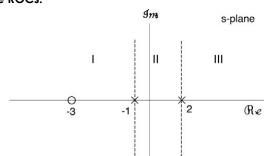


• If the ROC includes the  $j\omega$ -axis, then the Fourier transform of x(t) exists. Hence, the Fourier transform can be considered to be the evaluation of the Laplace transform along the  $j\omega$ -axis.

#### **Example:**

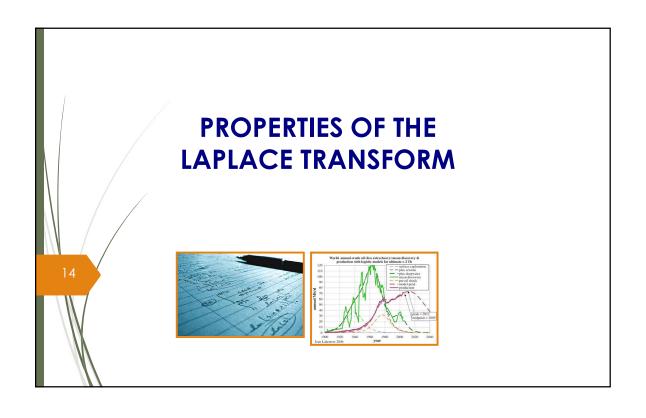
12

- Consider the Laplace transform:  $X(s) = \frac{(s+3)}{(s+1)(s-2)}$
- Can we uniquely determine the original signal, x(t)?
- There are three possible ROCs:



- ROC III: only if x(t) is right-sided.
- ROC I: only if x(t) is left-sided.
- ROC II: only if x(t) has a Fourier transform.

Review you	Table 3.1 One-Sided Laplace Transforms				
		Function of Time	Function of s, ROC		
	1.	$\delta(t)$	1, whole s-plane		
	2.	u(t)	$\frac{1}{s}$ , $\mathcal{R}e[s] > 0$		
	3.	r(t)	$\frac{1}{s^2}$ , $\Re[s] > 0$		
	4.	$e^{-at}u(t),\ a>0$	$\frac{1}{s+a}$ , $\mathcal{R}e[s] > -a$		
	5.	$\cos(\Omega_0 t) u(t)$	$\frac{s}{s^2+\Omega_0^2}$ , $\mathcal{R}e[s]>0$		
	6.	$\sin(\Omega_0 t)u(t)$	$\frac{\Omega_0}{s^2+\Omega_0^2}$ , $\mathcal{R}e[s]>0$		
	7.	$e^{-at}\cos(\Omega_0 t)u(t),\ a>0$	$\frac{s+a}{(s+a)^2+\Omega_0^2}, \ \mathcal{R}e[s] > -a$		
	8.	$e^{-at}\sin(\Omega_0 t)u(t), \ a>0$	$\frac{\Omega_0}{(s+a)^2+\Omega_0^2}$ , $\mathcal{R}e[s] > -a$		
	9.	$2A e^{-at} \cos(\Omega_0 t + \theta) u(t), \ a > 0$	$\frac{A \angle \theta}{s+a-j\Omega_0} + \frac{A \angle -\theta}{s+a+j\Omega_0}$ , $\Re[s] > -a$		
	10.	$\frac{1}{(N-1)!} t^{N-1} u(t)$	$\frac{1}{s^N}$ N an integer, $\mathcal{R}e[s] > 0$		
	11.	$\frac{1}{(N-1)!} t^{N-1} e^{-at} u(t)$	$\frac{1}{(s+a)^N}$ N an integer, $\Re[s] > -a$		
///	12.	$\frac{2A}{(N-1)!} t^{N-1} e^{-at} \cos(\Omega_0 t + \theta) u(t)$	$\frac{A\angle\theta}{(s+a-j\Omega_0)^N} + \frac{A\angle-\theta}{(s+a+j\Omega_0)^N}$ , $\Re e[s] > -a$		



# **Familiar Properties of Linear Transforms**

- To introduce the inverse Laplace transform and some important applications of the transform (e.g., circuits), we will need to introduce some familiar properties of the transform (e.g., linearity).
- There are some properties unique to the Laplace transform (e.g., the Initial Value Theorem).
- There are some properties of the Fourier Transform that do not have an equivalent for the Laplace transform (e.g., duality, Parseval's theorem).

1. Linearity:

$$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \leftrightarrow aX_1(s) + bX_2(s)$$

Nøte that the ROC for the sum is at least the intersection of the ROCs for each component (it must include regions for which both transforms converge).

In some special cases, the ROC can be larger (e.g., when the zeroes of one component cancel the poles of the other component). For example: a = -b and  $x_1(t) = x_2(t) \implies x(t) = 0 \implies ROC$  is the entire s - plane

$$x(t) = u(t) + e^{-t}u(t) \leftrightarrow X(s) = \frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s+1} = \frac{(s+1)}{(s)(s+1)} + \frac{s}{(s)(s+1)} = \frac{2s+1}{(s)(s+1)}$$

### **Properties of the Laplace Transform**

$$x(t-T) \leftrightarrow e^{-sT} X(s)$$
 same ROC as  $X(s)$ 

2. Time-Shift:

Example:  

$$e^{-2t}u(t) \leftrightarrow X(s) = \frac{1}{s+2} \quad \text{ROC} : \text{Re}\{X(s)\} > -2$$

$$e^{-2(t-3)}u(t-3) \leftrightarrow X(s) = \frac{e^{-3s}}{s+2} \quad \text{ROC} : \text{Re}\{X(s)\} > -2$$

Note that the ROC doesn't change because it is defined by the pole location.

Example:  

$$x(t) = u(t) - u(t - T) \leftrightarrow X(s) = \frac{1}{s} - \frac{e^{-Ts}}{s} = \frac{1 - e^{-Ts}}{s}$$

What is the ROC? Hint: This is a time-limited signal.

3. Time Scaling:

$$x(at) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{a}X(\frac{s}{a})$$

**Example:** 

$$u(at) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{a} (\frac{1}{s/a}) = \frac{1}{s}$$
 Is this result expected?

### **More Properties**

4. Multiplication by a Power of t:
$$t^{n}x(t) \leftrightarrow (-1)^{n} \frac{d^{n}}{ds^{n}} X(s) \quad \text{same ROC as } X(s)$$

Compare to Fourier transform:

$$t^n x(t) \leftrightarrow (j)^n \frac{d^n}{ds^n} X(e^{j\omega})$$

Example:

r(t) = tu(t) 
$$\leftrightarrow$$
 R(s) =  $(-1)^1 \frac{d^1}{ds^1} (\frac{1}{s}) = \frac{1}{s^2}$ 

5. Time-Domain Differentiation (Bilateral): 
$$\frac{d^n x(t)}{dt^n} \leftrightarrow s^n X(s)$$
 ROC can be bigger than the ROC for  $x(t)$ 

Example:

$$x(t) = \delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt} \leftrightarrow X(s) = (s)(\frac{1}{s}) = 1 \quad \text{ROC for } \delta(t) \text{ is larger than the ROC for } u(t)$$

6. Integration:

$$\int_{0}^{t} x(\lambda)d\lambda \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s}X(s)$$
 ROC must not include  $s = 0$ 

# **≻**Convolution

7. The convolution integral:

$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} x(\lambda)h(t - \lambda)d\lambda$$

**CT LTI** x(t)x(t)\*h(t)h(t)X(s)X(s)H(s)H(s)

- Laplace transform is analogous to the Fourier transform: Y(s) = X(s)H(s)
- But, because the Laplace transform and its inverse (to be discussed in a moment), are not symmetric, the dual of this is not true:  $x(t)h(t) \leftrightarrow X(s)^*H(s)$

This is one reason the Fourier transform is more popular for applications involving communications systems and modulation.

The ROC is at least the overlap of the ROCs for each signal (again, it can be Jarger than the ROC for either signal).

**Example:** 

$$x(t) = u(t) - u(t-1) \leftrightarrow X(s) = \left(\frac{1 - e^{-s}}{s}\right)$$

$$y(t) = x(t) * x(t) \leftrightarrow X^{2}(s) = \left(\frac{1 - e^{-s}}{s}\right)^{2} = \frac{1 - 2e^{-s} + e^{-2s}}{s^{2}}$$

$$y(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s^{2}}\right\} - 2\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{e^{-s}}{s^{2}}\right\} + \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{e^{-2s}}{s^{2}}\right\} = tu(t) - 2(t-1)u(t-1) + (t-2)u(t-2)$$

### The Unilateral (One-sided) Laplace Transform

• Define a special case of the Laplace transform for right-sided signals:

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

- For right-sided signals ( x(t) = 0, t < 0), and for causal systems (h(t) = 0, t < 0), the one-sided and two-sided transforms are equal.
- Several properties change slightly, such as differentiation:

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} \leftrightarrow sX(s) - x(0^{-})$$

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} \leftrightarrow sX(s) - x(0^{-})$$
Proof:
$$\frac{d^{2}x(t)}{dt^{2}} \leftrightarrow s^{2}X(s) - sx(0^{-}) - \frac{dx}{dt}\Big|_{t=0^{-}}$$

Proof:

$$\sqrt{\mathcal{U}\mathcal{L}}\left\{\frac{dx(t)}{dt}\right\} = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt = x(t)e^{-st}\Big|_{0^{-}}^{\infty} + s \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt \quad \text{(using integration by parts)}$$
$$= -x(0^{-}) + sX(s)$$

Other properties, such as **convolution**, hold as is, as long as the system is **causal** and the input starts at t = 0.

#### **Initial and Final Value Theorems**

· Theorem:

$$x(0) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sX(s)$$
 (Initial Value Theorem)  
 $x(\infty) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sX(s)$  (Final Value Theorem)

· Proof:

Applying the differentiation property:

$$ux\left\{\frac{dx(t)}{dt}\right\} = sX(s) - x(0)$$

**Quadration** property: 
$$\mathcal{UL}\left\{\frac{dx(t)}{dt}\right\} = sX(s) - x(0)$$

$$\mathcal{UL}\left\{\frac{dx(t)}{dt}\right\} = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt = \begin{cases} \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} (0) dt = 0 & s \to \infty \\ \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} (1) dt = x(\infty) - x(0) & s \to 0 \end{cases}$$
Combining the two

Combining the two:

combining the two:  

$$sX(s) - x(0) = 0$$
  $s \to \infty \Rightarrow x(0) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sX(s)$ 

$$x(\infty) - x(0) = sX(s) - x(0)$$
  $s \to 0$   $\Rightarrow$   $x(\infty) = \lim_{s \to 0} sX(s)$ 

• The initial value theorem can be extended to higher-order derivatives:

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt}\bigg|_{t=0} = \lim_{s \to \infty} [s^2 X(s) - sx(0)]$$

Allow initial and final conditions to be computed directly from the transform.

#### Application of the Initial and Final Value Theorems

21

• Consider a rational transform:

$$X(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$$
 where  $n : \text{order of N(s)}$   
 $d : \text{order of D(s)}$ 

• Initial value:

$$x(0) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sX(s) = \lim_{s \to \infty} \frac{s^{n+1}}{s^d} = \begin{cases} 0 & d > n+1\\ finite \neq 0 & d = n+1\\ \infty & d < n+1 \end{cases}$$

For example:

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} \implies x(0) = \lim_{s \to \infty} \frac{s^{1}}{s^{1}} = 1$$

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)^{2}} \implies x(0) = \lim_{s \to \infty} \frac{s^{1}}{s^{2}} = 0$$

·/Final Value:

$$x(\infty) = \lim_{s \to 0} sX(s) = 0 \implies \lim_{s \to 0} X(s) < \infty \implies \text{no poles at } s = 0$$

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} \implies x(\infty) = \lim_{s \to 0} \frac{s}{s+1} = 1$$

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2} \implies x(\infty) = \lim_{s \to 0} \frac{s}{(s+1)^2} = 0$$

22

Table 3.2 Basic Properties of One-Sided Laplace Transforms

Causal functions and constants	$\alpha f(t), \ \beta g(t)$	$\alpha F(s), \ \beta G(s)$
Linearity	$\alpha f(t) + \beta g(t)$	$\alpha F(s) + \beta G(s)$
Time shifting	$f(t-\alpha)$	$e^{-\alpha s}F(s)$
Frequency shifting	$e^{\alpha t}f(t)$	$F(s-\alpha)$
Multiplication by $t$	t f(t)	$-\frac{dF(s)}{ds}$
Derivative	$\frac{df(t)}{dt}$	sF(s) - f(0-)
Second derivative	$\frac{d^2f(t)}{dt^2}$	$s^2F(s) - sf(0-) - f^{(1)}(0)$
Integral	$\int_{0-}^{t} f(t')dt$	$\frac{F(s)}{s}$
Expansion/contraction	$f(\alpha t) \ \alpha \neq 0$	$\frac{1}{ \alpha }F\left(\frac{s}{\alpha}\right)$
Initial value	$f(0+) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sF(s)$	
Final value	$\lim_{t\to\infty} f(t) = \lim_{s\to 0} sF(s)$	

