# ENGR 071 Digital Signal Processing

Class 02 01/23/2025 ENGR 71 Class 02

- Class Overview
  - Overview of Signals and Systems
    - Continuous Signals & Systems
    - Point out similarities for Discrete Time Signals

#### **Assignment 1**

Assignment 1: Review of Complex Variables

Due Sunday, Jan. 26

#### **SIGNALS AND SYSTEMS**

#### Classification of signals

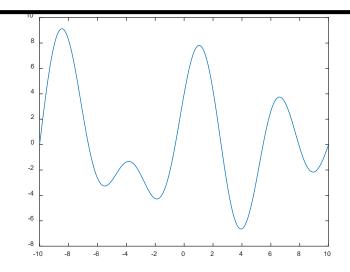
- Continuous signals
  - Continuous values for amplitude and time
    - » v(t),  $t_{start} < t < t_{end}$ , v(t) is a real-valued function of a continuous variable, t.
- Discrete signals
  - Continuous values for amplitude, discrete values for time
    - » Often sampled at fixed time interval,  $T_s$ 
      - $v(nT_s), n_{\min} \le n \le n_{\max}$
      - » Discrete times associated with sample are  $nT_s$ ,  $n = \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$
      - » Do not need to explicitly denote sampling time,  $T_s$
      - Signal can be thought of as a sequence of number: v(n)  $\cdots$ , v(-2), v(-1), v(0), v(1), v(2),  $\cdots$

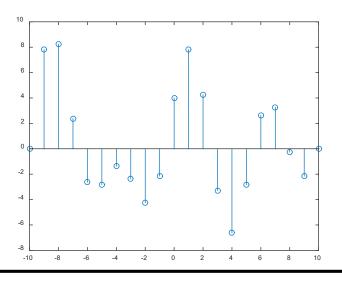
#### Digital signals

- Quantized amplitudes, discrete value for time
  - $v_q(nT_s), v_q \in \{\text{fixed set of values}\}, n_{\min} \le n \le n_{\max}$

Continuous: (matlab plot)

Discrete (Matlab stem)





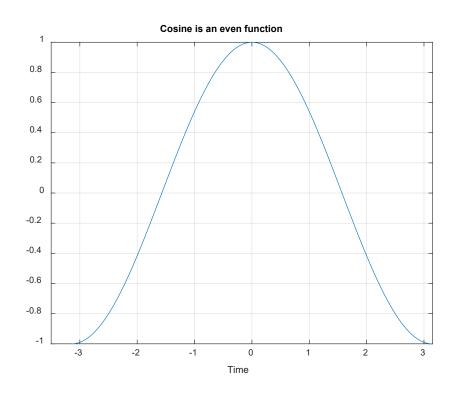
#### Other attributes for signals:

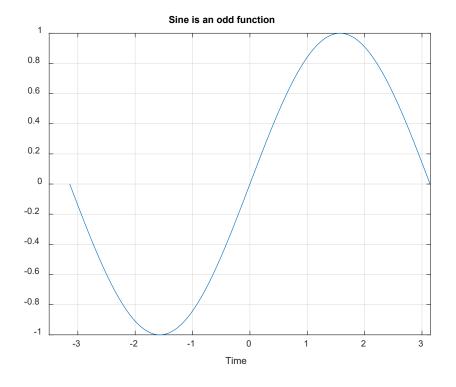
• Support: range of times for which signal is non-zero.

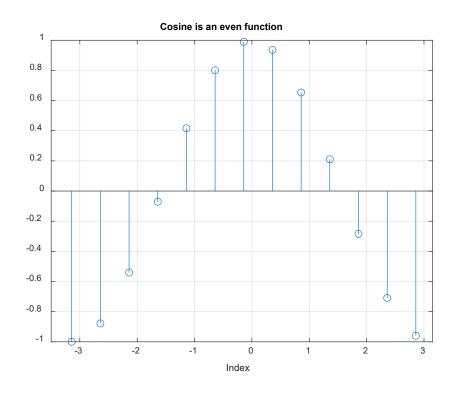
 Finite support:	$t_{\min} \le t \le t_{\max}$	$\left[n_{\min} \le n \le n_{\max}\right]$
 Infinite duration:	$-\infty \le t \le \infty$	$\left[-\infty \le n \le \infty\right]$
 Semi-infinite:	$0 \le t \le \infty$	$\left[0 \le n \le \infty\right]$

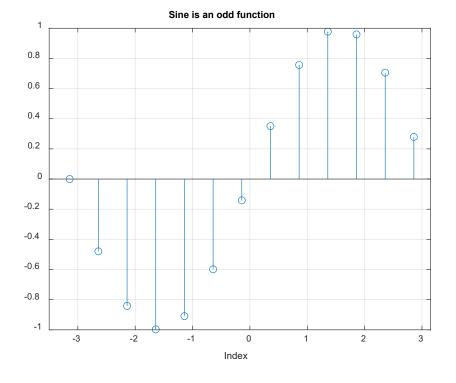
- Deterministic or random
  - Deterministic would be something like voice
  - Random would be something like noise
- Even or Odd

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- Even: v(t) = v(-t) e.g. cosine v(t) = v(-n) e.g. cosine v(t) = -v(-t) e.g. sine v(t) = -v(-t) e.g. sine v(t) = -v(-n) e.g. sine
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- Even or Odd
  - You can represent a signal by its even and odd parts

$$v(t) = v_{even}(t) + v_{odd}(t)$$
 where

$$v_{even}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left( v(t) + v(-t) \right)$$

$$v_{odd}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left( v(t) - v(-t) \right)$$

– Note that:

$$v_{even}(-t) = \frac{1}{2}(v(-t) + v(+t)) = \frac{1}{2}(v(t) + v(-t)) = v_{even}(t)$$

$$v_{odd}(-t) = \frac{1}{2} \left( v(-t) - v(+t) \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \left( v(t) - v(-t) \right) = -v_{odd}(t)$$

(It is understood that there are similar expressions for discrete signals, but I'll stop showing them.)

#### Basic Signal Operations

• Add signals: w(t) = u(t) + v(t)

• Scale signal (multiply by a constant)  $\alpha v(t)$ 

• Time shift:

- Delay by  $\tau$ :  $v(t-\tau)$ 

- Advance by  $\tau$ :  $v(t+\tau)$ 

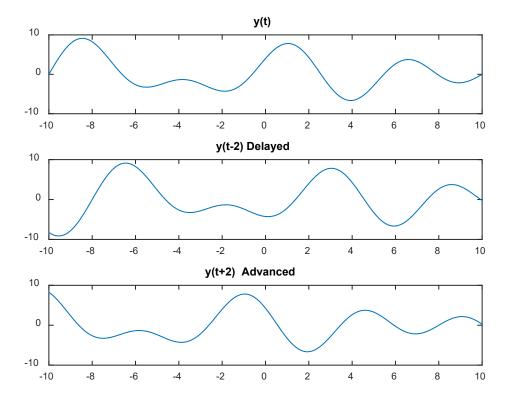
• Time scaling:  $v(\alpha t)$ 

- If  $\alpha = -1$ , then you reflect time axis (reverse time)

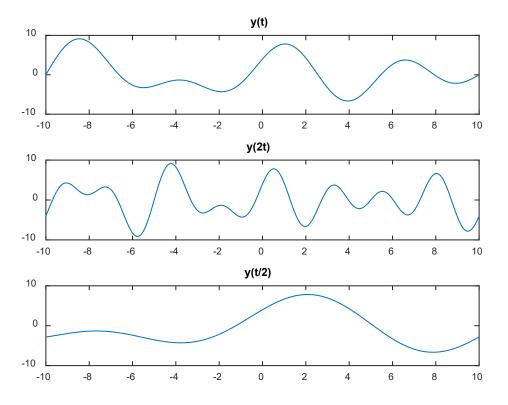
• Windowing: multiply by some function w(t) that has finite support. w(t)v(t)

• Integrate signal:  $\int_0^t v(\tau) d\tau$ 

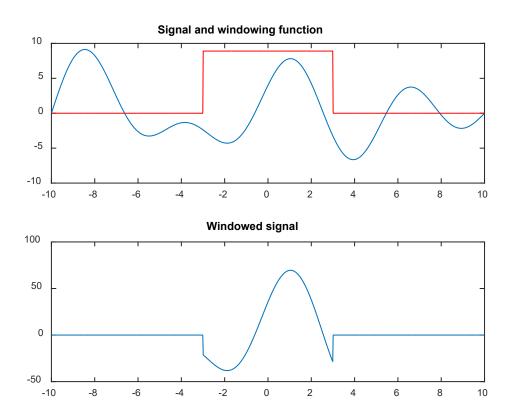
#### Time shifting



#### Time scaling



#### Windowing



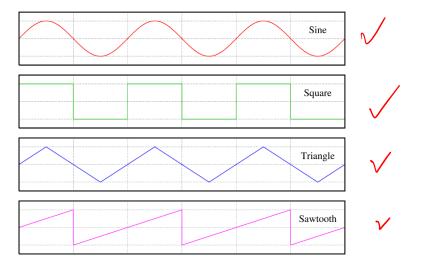
- Other attributes for signals:
  - Periodic or aperiodic.
    - Periodic: Signal repeats after some time interval

$$v(t) = v(t + kT_P) k = 1, 2, ...$$

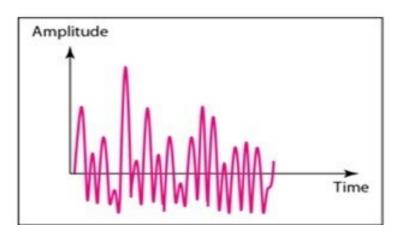
- » Trigonometric or train of pulses would be examples
- Aperiodic: Signal doesn't repeat
  - » A voice signal would be an example.
- Casual: v(t) = 0, t < 0

(Idea of a casual signal is that it is a signal that can be the impulse response of a casual system.)

#### Periodic



#### Aperiodic



- Other attributes for signals:
  - Finite-energy called "Energy Signals"
    - Also called square integrable

 $E = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left| v(t) \right|^2 dt < \infty$ 

For discrete signals, integrals are sums

– Examples:

$$v(t) = e^{-3t}$$
  $0 < t < +\infty$  Finite energy  $v(t) = e^{0.01t}$   $0 < t < +\infty$  Not finite energy

Can also have absolutely integrable signals

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |v(t)| dt < \infty$$

$$v(t) = t^{-1}$$
 1 <  $t < +\infty$  Square integable? Absolutely integrable?

See example on Moodle

Square integrable, but not absolutely integrable

- Other attributes for signals:
  - Finite-power (Called "Power Signals")
    - Time-averaged energy

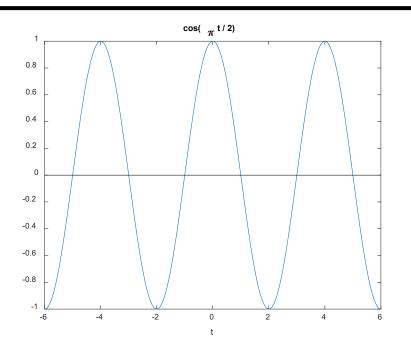
$$P = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^{+T} |v(t)|^2 dt < \infty$$
 Finite energy signals have zero power

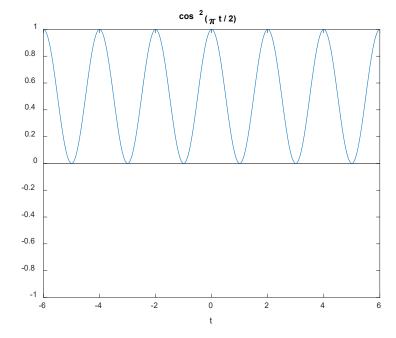
For a periodic signal, average energy over one period

$$P = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + T_0} |v(t)|^2 dt$$
 Periodic signals
Can have non-zero power

Example: 
$$x(t) = \cos\left(\frac{\pi t}{2}\right), -\infty < t < \infty$$
;  $E \to \infty$ ;  $P = \frac{1}{2}$ 

See example on Moodle



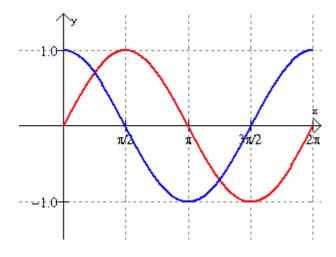


$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi t}{2}\right) dt \to \infty$$

$$P = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + T_0} \left| \cos \left( \frac{\pi t}{2} \right) \right|^2 dt = \frac{1}{4} \int_{-2}^{2} \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi t}{2} \right) dt = \frac{1}{2}$$

- "Special Signals
  - Sinusoids

$$v(t) = A\cos(\omega t + \theta)$$



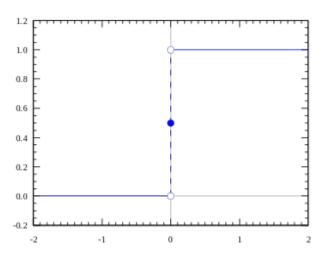
• Complex Exponential:

$$v(t) = Ce^{(r+j\omega)t} = |C|e^{j\theta}e^{rt}e^{j\omega t} = |C|e^{rt}\left[\cos(\omega t + \theta) + j\sin(\omega t + \theta)\right]$$

- "Special Signals
  - Heaviside Step function

$$H(t) = 0; 0 < t$$
  
 $H(t) = 1; t > 0$ 

• Also denoted as u(t) or  $\gamma(t)$  or  $\theta(t)$ 



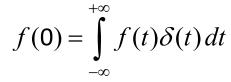
- "Special Signals"
  - Impulse function (Dirac  $\delta$ -function)
    - Not really a function (a functional)

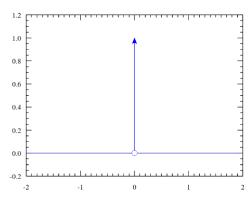
$$\delta(t) = 0, \ t \neq 0$$

$$\delta(t) = \infty, \ t = 0$$

Area under  $\delta$  function is 1

Actually defined by

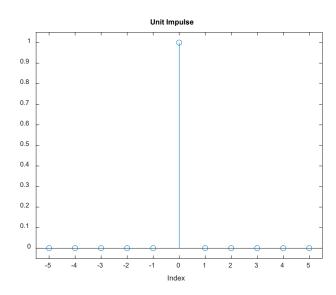




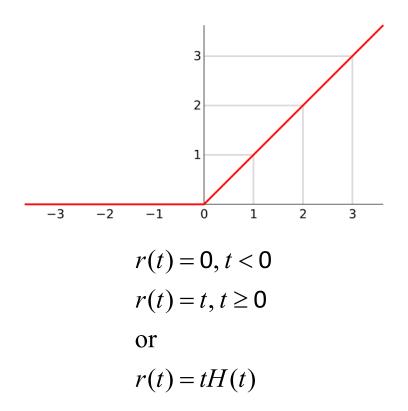
- This one is different (and simpler) for discrete signals
- Impulse function (or unit sample function)

$$\delta(n) = 0, \quad n \neq 0$$

$$\delta(n) = 1$$
,  $t = 0$ 



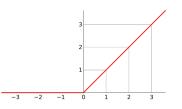
- "Special Signals
  - Ramp

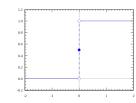


- "Special Signals
  - Relationships between step, impulse, & ramp

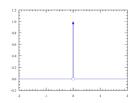
$$\frac{dr(t)}{dt} = H(t)$$

$$\frac{d^2r(t)}{dt^2} = \frac{dH(t)}{dt} = \delta(t)$$

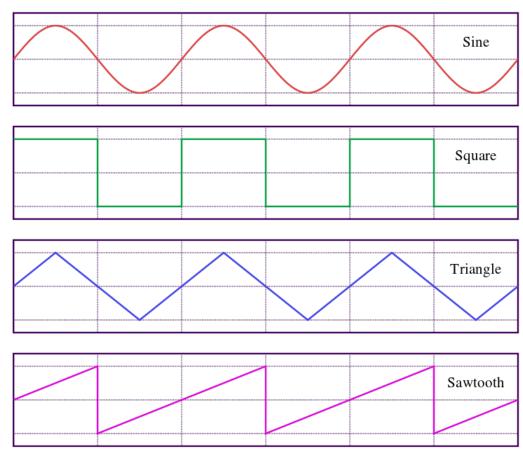




Derivatives do not exist for discrete signals, but you can get similar relationships by subtracting shifted ramps or step functions



#### Other common (periodic) signals



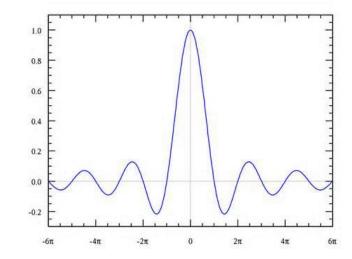
#### "Special Signals

#### • Sinc function

$$S(t) = \frac{\sin(\pi t)}{\pi t}$$

$$S(0) = 1$$

$$S(k) = 0, k \text{ integer}$$



This is the normalized sinc function

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S^2(t)dt = \mathbf{1}$$

Matlab & NumPy use this form.

Also, an unnormalized form:

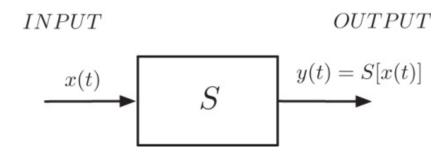
$$S(t) = \frac{\sin(t)}{t}$$

Mathematica and WolframAlpha use this form

Table 1.1 Basic Signals			
Signal	Definition/Properties		
Damped complex exponential	$ A e^{t}[\cos(\Omega_{0}t+\theta)+j\sin(\Omega_{0}t+\theta)]-\infty < t < \infty$		
Sinusoid	$A\cos(\Omega_0 t + \theta) = A\sin(\Omega_0 t + \theta + \pi/2) - \infty < t < \infty$		
Unit-impulse	$\delta(t)=0 \ t \neq 0$ , undefined at $t=0, \int_{-\infty}^{t} \delta(\tau) d\tau = 1, t>0$ ,		
	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)\delta(t-\tau)d\tau = f(t)$		
Unit-step	$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t > 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases}$		
Ramp	$r(t) = tu(t) = \begin{cases} t & t > 0 \\ 0 & t \le 0 \end{cases}$		
	$\delta(t) = du(t)/dt$		
	$u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \delta(\tau) d\tau$		
	$r(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} u(\tau) d\tau$		
Rectangular pulse	$p(t) = A[u(t) - u(t-1)] = \begin{cases} A & 0 \le t \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$		
Triangular pulse	$\begin{cases} At & 0 \le t \le 1 \end{cases}$		
	$\Lambda(t) = A[r(t) - 2r(t-1) + r(t-2)] = \begin{cases} At & 0 \le t \le 1 \\ A(2-t) & 1 < t \le 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$		
Sampling signal	$\delta_{T_s}(t) = \sum_k \delta(t - kT_s)$		
Sinc	$S(t) = \sin(\pi t)/(\pi t)$		
	S(0) = 1		
	$S(k) = 0, k \text{ integer } \neq 0$ ENGR 071 Class 02 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S^2(t) dt = 1$		

### **Systems**

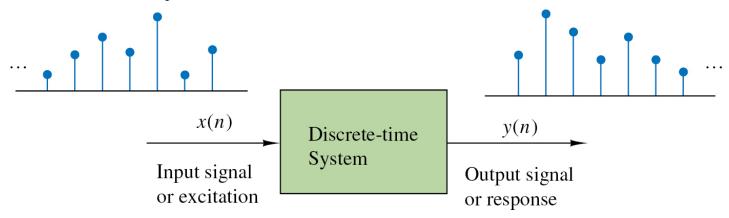
- System
  - Transforms input signal to output signal
  - Illustrated by "black box"



The system can be thought of as a mathematical transformation mapping the input, x(t) to the output, y(t).

### **Systems**

- Discrete system is essential the same
  - Transforms input signal to output signal
  - Illustrated by "black box"



The system can be thought of as a mathematical transformation mapping the input, x(n) to the output, y(n).

#### High level classification of systems

#### Lumped or Distributed

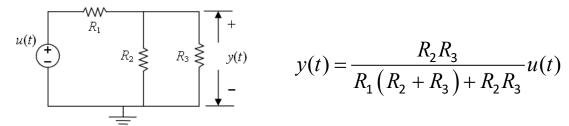
- » Lumped means elements of systems are localized and you only need to consider the evolution of components in time.
  - » Example would be circuit with discrete elements (like R, L, C)
- » Distributed means system is distributed over space, like transmission lines
- » Lumped systems can be described with ordinary differential equations
- » Distributed systems are described with partial differential equations.

#### Passive or Active systems

- » Passive systems can not deliver energy outside the system
  - » Example R-L-C circuits
- » Active systems can deliver energy outside the system
  - » Example: Op Amp circuits

- More classifications of systems
  - Continuous-time
    - » Input and output signals are continuous time functions
  - Discrete-time
    - » Input and output signals consist of sampled times
  - Digital
    - » Inputs and outputs are discrete in time and amplitudes are quantized
  - Hybrid
    - » Input and output signals can be mixed
    - » Example Analog to Digital (A/D) converter

- Static or Dynamic (Also called memoryless or with memory)
- Static system only depends on the input at the present time
  - » Example: resistive circuit excited by input voltage



- Dynamic system depends not only on the input at the current time, but also on the input at previous times.
  - » Example would be circuits with capacitors and inductors

$$v_c(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^{t} i(\tau) d\tau$$

Another example would be a combination lock.(i.e., needs to know two previous inputs plus present input to unlock.)

#### Causal Systems

- If output y(t) at time  $t_0$  only depends on input x(t) for  $t \le t_0$ , system is causal.
- In other words, output can only depends on past and current input.

#### Linear Systems

- If you scale the input to the system, the output scales by the same factor.
- If you add to inputs and let the system operate on the inputs, the output is like you gave each input separately and sum the individual responses.
- Mathematically:

$$S[\alpha x(t) + \beta y(t)] = \alpha S[x(t)] + \beta S[y(t)]$$

- If you superimpose two signals, output is superposition of two outputs.
  - » Principle of superposition

#### Time Invariant Systems

- Parameters of system do not change with time.
- If you shift input time, output is shifted in same way
- If input x(t) produces output y(t), then input at  $x(t-t_0)$  produces output at  $y(t-t_0)$
- Examples
  - » Capacitor is time invariant since:

$$v(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} i(\tau) d\tau$$

If you consider input shifted by time  $t_0$ 

$$v_{t_0}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} i(\tau - t_0) d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{t - t_0} i(\tau) d\tau = v(t - t_0)$$

- Example that is not time invariant:  $y(t) = x(t) + \sin \omega t$ 

$$y(t) = S[x(t)] = x(t) + \sin \omega t$$

$$S[x(t-t_0)] = x(t-t_0) + \sin \omega t$$

$$y(t-t_0) = x(t-t_0) + \sin \omega (t-t_0)$$

$$\therefore S[x(t-t_0)] \neq y(t-t_0)$$

### Linear Time Invariant Systems

- Important class of systems
- Can be represented by ordinary linear differential equation with constant coefficients.
  - Not all Linear D.E.'s with constant coefficients correspond to LTI systems
    - » Must be causal and initially quiescent
- What is so special about LTI systems?
  - LTI systems can be completely characterized by impulse response

### **Review of Linear Differential Equations**

• Homogeneous, linear, constant coefficient:

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dt^{n}} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2}\frac{d^{n-2}y}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_{1}\frac{dy}{dt} + a_{0}y = 0$$

• Non-homogeneous, linear, constant coefficient:

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dt^{n}} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2}\frac{d^{n-2}y}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_{1}\frac{dy}{dt} + a_{0}y = x(t)$$

• Most general form:

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dt^{n}} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2}\frac{d^{n-2}y}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_{1}\frac{dy}{dt} + a_{0}y$$

$$= b_{m}\frac{d^{m}x}{dt^{m}} + b_{m-1}\frac{d^{m-1}x}{dt^{m-1}} + b_{m-2}\frac{d^{m-2}x}{dt^{m-2}} + \dots + b_{1}\frac{dx}{dt} + b_{0}x$$

- Approaches to finding total solution:
  - Natural and forced response
    - Homogeneous and particular solutions
      - » Need to solve for both homogeneous and particular solutions before using initial conditions.
  - Zero-input response and Zero-state response
    - Zero-input response:
      - » Result due exclusively to the initial conditions since the input is zero
      - » Set input side of equation to zero, but use initial conditions to find constants
    - Zero-state response:
      - » Result due exclusively to the input since the initial conditions are zero
      - » Find total solution, but with the initial conditions set to zero

- Solving linear differential equations
  - Two ways to get total solution
    - Homogeneous Solution + Particular Solution (Natural response + Forced response)
    - Zero Input Solution + Zero State Solution
      (Response due just to initial conditions + Response due just to the input)

- Zero Input / Zero State
   versus
   Homogeneous/Particular
  - Conceptually, the ZI/ZS approach has the advantage of a specific physical interpretation:
    - Zero input is the part of the response due to initial conditions alone (input to system is 0)
    - Zero state is the part of the response due to the system input alone (no initial conditions)
    - Advantage of Homogeneous/Particular approach is that it is simpler
      - You have to use this approach to find the zero state solution

(However, we will see that you can use convolution to find zero state solution directly)

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dt^{n}} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2}\frac{d^{n-2}y}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_{1}\frac{dy}{dt} + a_{0}y = x(t)$$

#### Method 1:

Solve homogeneous equation:

$$\frac{d^n y_h}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y_h}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2} \frac{d^{n-2} y_h}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_1 \frac{dy_h}{dt} + a_0 y_h = 0$$

(Solution has *n* unknown constants that are determined from initial conditions)

Solve non-homogeneous equation:

$$\frac{d^n y_p}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y_p}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2} \frac{d^{n-2} y_p}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_1 \frac{dy_p}{dt} + a_0 y_p = x(t)$$

(Solution has no unknown constants)

Method 1 (continued)

Combine two solutions:

$$y(t) = y_h(t) + y_p(t)$$

Apply initial conditions to  $\underline{total}$  solution to solve for n constants

$$y(0), y'(0), y''(0), \dots y^{(n-2)}(0), y^{(n-1)}(0)$$

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dt^{n}} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2}\frac{d^{n-2}y}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_{1}\frac{dy}{dt} + a_{0}y = x(t)$$

#### Method 2:

Solve zero-input equation:

$$\frac{d^{n}y_{zi}}{dt^{n}} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y_{zi}}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2}\frac{d^{n-2}y_{zi}}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_{1}\frac{dy_{zi}}{dt} + a_{0}y_{zi} = 0$$

Apply initial conditions to  $\underline{zero-input}$  solution to solve for n constants:

$$y(0), y'(0), y''(0), \dots y^{(n-2)}(0), y^{(n-1)}(0)$$

### Method 2 (continued)

Solve zero-state equation:

$$\frac{d^{n}y_{zs}}{dt^{n}} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y_{zs}}{dt^{n-1}} + a_{n-2}\frac{d^{n-2}y_{zs}}{dt^{n-2}} + \dots + a_{1}\frac{dy_{zs}}{dt} + a_{0}y_{zs} = x(t)$$

Apply initial conditions that are all zero:

$$y_{zs}(0) = 0, y'_{zs}(0) = 0, y''_{zs}(0) = 0, \dots, y^{(n-2)}_{zs}(0) = 0, y^{(n-1)}_{zs}(0) = 0$$

to solve for *n* constants

Note that this means you must solve as in method 1 for homogeneous + particular solutions but with the initial conditions set to zero

Combine zero-input and zero-state solutions for final result:

$$y(t) = y_{zi}(t) + y_{zs}(t)$$

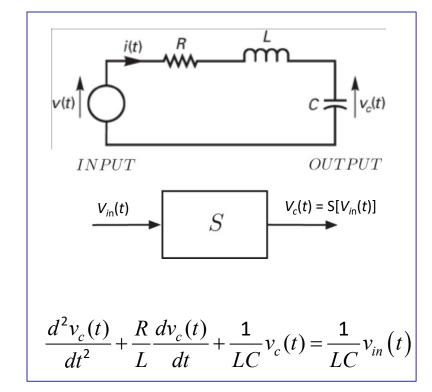
Example: Solve the following O.D.E.

$$\frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2} + 4\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) = \sin(t), \quad t \ge 0, \quad y(0) = \frac{4}{5}, \quad y'(0) = \frac{11}{10}$$

#### Method 1

Solve homogeneous equation:

$$y''_H(t) + 4y'_H(t) + 3y_H(t) = 0$$
  
 $\lambda^2 + 4\lambda + 3 = 0$   
 $(\lambda + 1)(\lambda + 3) = 0 \implies \lambda = -1, \quad \lambda = -3$   
 $y_H(t) = C_1 e^{-t} + C_2 e^{-3t}$ 



#### Method 1 (continued)

#### Solve particular equation:

$$y_P''(t) + 4y_P'(t) + 3y_P(t) = \sin(t)$$

Method of undetermined coefficients

$$y_P(t) = A\sin(t) + B\cos(t)$$

$$y_P'(t) = A\cos(t) - B\sin(t)$$

$$y_P''(t) = -A\sin(t) - B\cos(t)$$

Plug into D.E.:

$$\left(-A\sin(t) - B\cos(t)\right) + 4\left(A\cos(t) - B\sin(t)\right) + 3\left(A\sin(t) + B\cos(t)\right) = \sin(t)$$

Solve for A and B:

$$(2A-4B)\sin(t)+(4A+2B)\cos(t)=1\sin(t)+0\cos(t)$$

$$2A - 4B = 1$$
 &  $4A + 2B = 0$   $\Rightarrow$   $A = \frac{1}{10}$  ;  $B = -\frac{1}{5}$ 

$$y_P(t) = \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

#### Method 1 (continued)

Total Solution: 
$$y(t) = y_H(t) + y_P(t) = C_1 e^{-t} + C_2 e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10} \sin(t) - \frac{1}{5} \cos(t)$$

Use initial conditions to solve for  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ :

$$y(t) = C_1 e^{-t} + C_2 e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10} \sin(t) - \frac{1}{5} \cos(t)$$

$$y'(t) = -C_1 e^{-t} - 3C_2 e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10} \cos(t) + \frac{1}{5} \sin(t)$$

$$y(0) = C_1 + C_2 - \frac{1}{5} = \frac{4}{5} \qquad \Rightarrow C_1 + C_2 = 1$$

$$y'(0) = -C_1 - 3C_2 + \frac{1}{10} = \frac{11}{10} \Rightarrow -C_1 - 3C_2 = 1$$

$$C_1 = 2, \quad C_2 = -1$$

Method 1 solution: 
$$y(t) = 2e^{-t} - e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

$$\frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2} + 4\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) = \sin(t), \quad t \ge 0, \quad y(0) = \frac{4}{5}, \quad y'(0) = \frac{11}{10}$$

#### Method 2

Solve the zero-input equation

$$\frac{d^2y_{zi}}{dt^2} + 4\frac{dy_{zi}}{dt} + 3y_{zi} = 0$$

$$y_{zi}(t) = C_1e^{-t} + C_2e^{-3t}$$
(Since we've already solved the homogeneous Equation, we can write down the answer)

Apply initial conditions to *zero-input* solution to solve for constants:

$$y_{zi}(0) = C_1 + C_2 = \frac{4}{5}$$

$$y'_{zi}(0) = -C_1 - 3C_2 = \frac{11}{10}$$

$$C_1 = \frac{7}{4} , C_2 = -\frac{19}{20}$$

$$y_{zi}(t) = \frac{7}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{19}{20}e^{-3t}$$

#### Method 2 (continued)

Solve the zero-state equation (with input signal and with all initial conditions set to zero

$$\frac{d^2 y_{zs}}{dt^2} + 4 \frac{dy_{zs}}{dt} + 3y_{zs} = \sin(t) , \quad y_{zs}(0) = 0, \quad y'_{zs}(0) = 0$$

Must go through whole procedure of Method 1 (homogeneous + particular)!

Homogeneous equation:

$$y''_{Hzs}(t) + 4y'_{Hzs}(t) + 3y_{Hzs}(t) = 0$$
$$y_{Hzs}(t) = D_1 e^{-t} + D_2 e^{-3t}$$

Particular solution:

$$y_{Pzs}(t) = \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

#### Method 2 (continued)

Total zero-state solution:

$$y_{zs}(t) = y_{Hzs}(t) + y_{Pzs}(t) = D_1 e^{-t} + D_2 e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10} \sin(t) - \frac{1}{5} \cos(t)$$

Apply all zero initial conditions:

$$y_{zs}(t) = D_1 e^{-t} + D_2 e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10} \sin(t) - \frac{1}{5} \cos(t)$$

$$y'_{zs}(t) = -D_1 e^{-t} - 3D_2 e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10} \cos(t) + \frac{1}{5} \sin(t)$$

$$y_{zs}(0) = D_1 + D_2 - \frac{1}{5} = 0$$
  $\Rightarrow D_1 + D_2 = \frac{1}{5}$ 

$$y'_{zs}(0) = -D_1 - 3D_2 + \frac{1}{10} = 0 \implies -D_1 - 3D_2 = -\frac{1}{10}$$

$$D_1 = \frac{1}{4}, \quad D_2 = -\frac{1}{20}$$

$$y_{zs}(t) = \frac{1}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{1}{20}e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

#### Method 2 (continued)

Total solution:

$$y(t) = y_{zi}(t) + y_{zs}(t) = \frac{7}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{19}{20}e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{1}{20}e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

Method 2 solution: 
$$y(t) = 2e^{-t} - e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

Which (luckily) is the same as the result from Method 1

#### Complete response

$$y(t) = 2e^{-t} - e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

Homogeneous solution (Natural response)

$$y_H(t) = 2e^{-t} - e^{-3t}$$

Particular solution Forced response

$$y_P(t) = \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

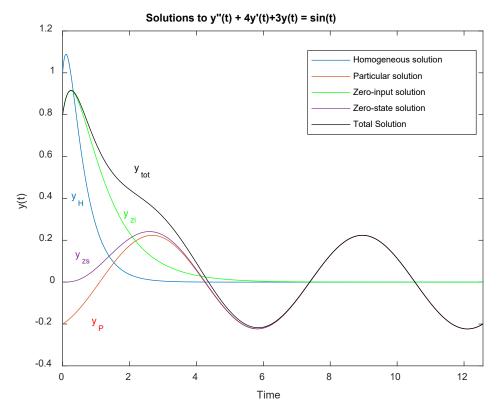
Zero-input
No input / Use initial conditions

$$y_{zi}(t) = \frac{7}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{19}{20}e^{-3t}$$

Zero-state
Use input/zero initial conditions

$$y_{zs}(t) = \frac{1}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{1}{20}e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

$$y(t) = 2e^{-t} - e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$



$$y_{H}(t) = 2e^{-t} - e^{-3t}$$
$$y_{P}(t) = \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

$$y_{zi}(t) = \frac{7}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{19}{20}e^{-3t}$$
$$y_{zs}(t) = \frac{1}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{1}{20}e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

- Why is this important?
  - The Zero-State response is what LTI systems produce in response to an input
  - Can a system be LTI if the initial conditions are not zero?
    - No: If you double the input, the zero-state response will double, but the zero-input response will not change.
  - The zero-state response can be obtained by convolving the impulse response with the input.
    - You do not need to solve the differential equation

#### Convolution

- Use LTI to find system response to sum of time-delayed inputs
- System response

$$y(t) = S[x(t)]$$

Response to weighted sum of delayed inputs using LTI

$$S\left[\sum_{k} A_{k} x(t - \tau_{k})\right] = \sum_{k} A_{k} S\left[x(t - \tau_{k})\right] = \sum_{k} A_{k} y(t - \tau_{k})$$

- Response is weighted sum of time-delayed outputs
- Consider sum going to integral:

$$S\left[\int g(\tau)x(t-\tau)d\tau\right] = \int g(\tau)S\left[x(t-\tau)\right]d\tau = \int g(\tau)y(t-\tau)d\tau$$

• The last integral is the convolution of g and y, also written:

$$\int g(\tau)y(t-\tau)d\tau = [g*y](t)$$

- Impulse response
  - Any arbitrary input signal, x(t), can be written as:

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(\tau) \delta(t - \tau) d\tau$$

- Think of  $x(\tau)$  as weights (not functions of t)
- The output of the system, y(t), is

$$y(t) = S[x(t)] = S\left[\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(\tau)\delta(t-\tau)d\tau\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(\tau)S[\delta(t-\tau)]d\tau$$

- Define the impulse response as:  $h(t) = S[\delta(t)]$
- For LTI system:

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau = [x*h](t)$$

- Note that convolution is symmetric:
  - Use change of variables:

$$\tau \to t - \tau'$$

$$[x*h](t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(\tau)x(t-\tau)d\tau = [h*x](t)$$

Output of the system can be written as

$$y(t) = [x * h](t)$$
 or  $y(t) = [h * x](t)$ 

- Impulse response is fundamental characterization of linear time-invariant systems
- Equivalent to zero-state (zero initial conditions) response when system is represented by linear D.E. with constant coefficients.

Example: 
$$\frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2} + 4\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) = \sin(t), \quad t \ge 0$$

The impulse response of the (causal) system represented by:

$$\frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2} + 4\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t)$$

is 
$$h(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left( e^{-t} - e^{-3t} \right)$$
,  $t > 0$  (We will see in a bit how we get this using the Laplace transform)

Convolution of input with impulse response:  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau$ 

For causal signals and systems: x(t) = 0 and h(t) = 0 for t < 0

Note:  $h(t-\tau) = 0$  in the integral for  $t-\tau < 0$  or  $\tau > t$ 

Similarly:  $x(\tau) = 0$  in the integral for  $\tau < 0$ 

For causal signals and systems: x(t) = 0 and h(t) = 0 for t < 0

Note:  $h(t-\tau) = 0$  in the integral for  $t-\tau < 0$  or  $\tau > t$ 

Similarly:  $x(\tau) = 0$  in the integral for  $\tau < 0$ 

So, the convolution integral is:

$$\int_{0}^{t} x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau = \int_{0}^{t} \sin(\tau)\frac{1}{2} \left(e^{-(t-\tau)} - e^{-3(t-\tau)}\right)d\tau$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}e^{-t} \int_{0}^{t} \sin(\tau)e^{\tau} d\tau - \frac{1}{2}e^{-3t} \int_{0}^{t} \sin(\tau)e^{3\tau} d\tau$$

$$\int_{0}^{t} x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau = \int_{0}^{t} \sin(\tau)\frac{1}{2}\left(e^{-(t-\tau)} - e^{-3(t-\tau)}\right)d\tau$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}e^{-t}\int_{0}^{t} \sin(\tau)e^{\tau}d\tau - \frac{1}{2}e^{-3t}\int_{0}^{t} \sin(\tau)e^{3\tau}d\tau$$

A couple of ways to do these integrals:

- (1) Integration by parts (twice) for each integral
- (2) Use Euler's formula for sine:  $\sin(\tau) = \frac{1}{2i} \left( e^{i\tau} e^{-i\tau} \right)$  so that you only have integrals of exponential functions (which are easier)

$$\int_{0}^{t} \sin(\tau) e^{\tau} d\tau = \int_{0}^{t} \frac{e^{i\tau} - e^{-i\tau}}{2i} e^{\tau} d\tau = \frac{1}{2i} \left( \int_{0}^{t} e^{(1+i)\tau} d\tau - \int_{0}^{t} e^{(1-i)\tau} d\tau \right)$$

$$= \frac{e^{\tau}}{2i} \left( \frac{e^{i\tau}}{1+i} - \frac{e^{-i\tau}}{1-i} \right) \Big|_{0}^{t} = \frac{e^{\tau}}{2i} \frac{(1-i)e^{i\tau} - (1+i)e^{-i\tau}}{(1+i)(1-i)} \Big|_{0}^{t} = \frac{e^{\tau}}{2i} \left( \frac{(e^{i\tau} - e^{-i\tau}) - i(e^{i\tau} + e^{-i\tau})}{2} \right) \Big|_{0}^{t}$$

$$= \frac{e^{\tau}}{2} \left( \sin(\tau) - \cos(\tau) \right) \Big|_{0}^{t} = \frac{1}{2} \left( e^{t} \sin(t) - e^{t} \cos(t) - e^{0} \sin(0) + e^{0} \cos(0) \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + e^{t} \sin(t) - e^{t} \cos(t) \right)$$

Looking promising since you can see first term gives you:

$$\frac{1}{2}e^{-t}\int_{0}^{t}\sin(\tau)e^{\tau}d\tau = \frac{1}{4}e^{-t} + \frac{1}{4}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{4}\cos(t)$$

The other term can be done in a similar fashion:

$$-\frac{1}{2}e^{-3t}\int_{0}^{t}\sin(\tau)e^{3\tau}d\tau = -\frac{1}{20}e^{-3t} - \frac{3}{20}\sin(t) + \frac{1}{20}\cos(t)$$

Combining the terms gives a final result of:

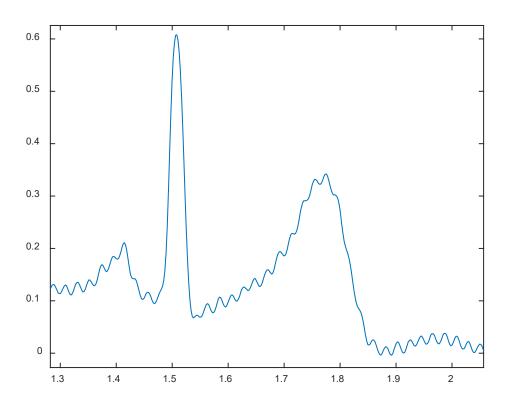
$$\frac{1}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{1}{20}e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

Recall that the zero-state solution was:

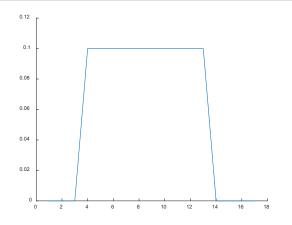
$$y_{zs}(t) = \frac{1}{4}e^{-t} - \frac{1}{20}e^{-3t} + \frac{1}{10}\sin(t) - \frac{1}{5}\cos(t)$$

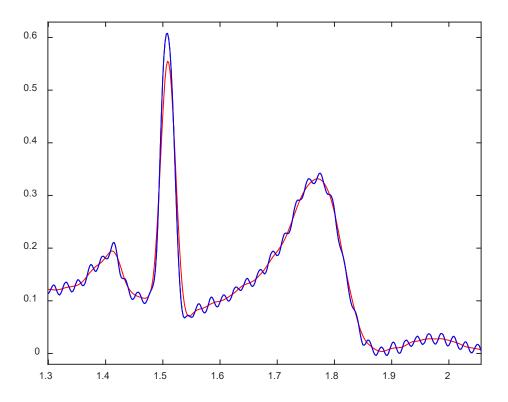
So, this example shows that the convolution of the impulse response with the input signal gives the zero-state response of the system.

# **Example of convolution**

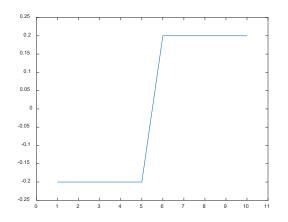


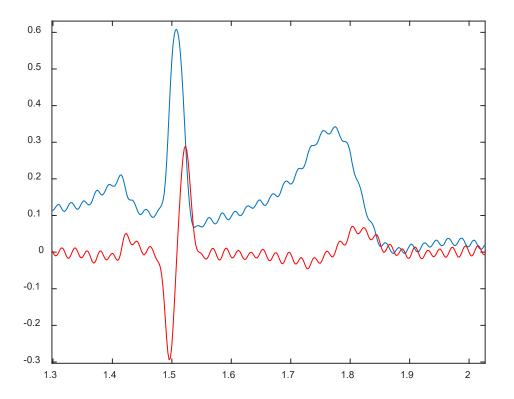
# **Example of convolution**





# **Example of convolution**





### – Step response:

• Step response is:

$$S(t) = S[u(t)]$$

• If h(t) is impulse response  $h(t) = S[\delta(t)]$ 

Since

$$\delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt}$$

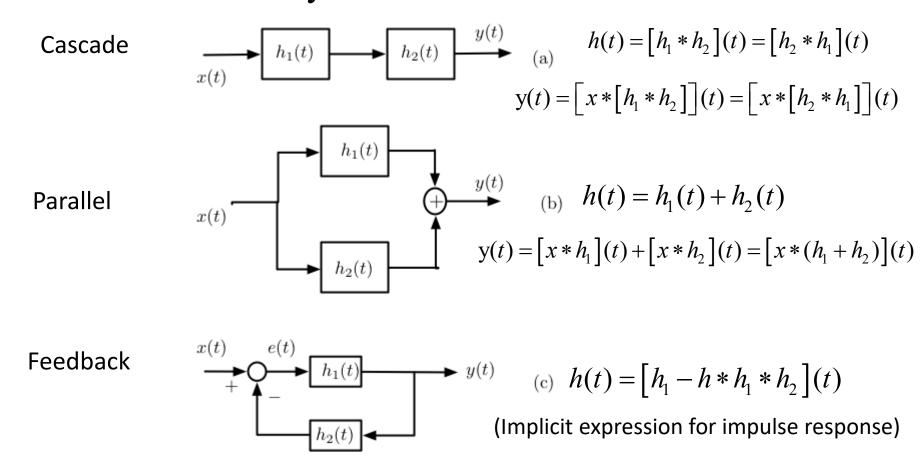
$$h(t) = S[\delta(t)] = S\left[\frac{du(t)}{dt}\right] = \frac{dS[u(t)]}{dt}$$

$$h(t) = \frac{ds(t)}{dt}$$

• Similarly, for a ramp response of  $\rho(t)$ 

$$h(t) = \frac{d^2 \rho(t)}{dt^2}$$

### Interconnection of systems



# **Causal Systems**

### Causal Systems:

Continuous-time system S is causal if

- for x(t) = 0 and no initial conditions, output y(t) = 0,
- y(t) does not depend on future inputs.

A LTI system represented by impulse response h(t) is causal if

$$h(t) = 0 for t < 0$$

The output of a causal LTI system with a causal input x(t), i.e., x(t) = 0 for t < 0, is

$$y(t) = \int_0^t x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau$$

# **BIBO Systems**

### Bounded Systems

#### Bounded-input Bounded-output (BIBO) Stability

BIBO stability: for a bounded (that is what is meant by well-behaved) input x(t) the output of a BIBO stable system y(t) is also bounded. This means that if there is a finite bound  $M < \infty$  such that |x(t)| < M (i.e., x(t) in an envelope [-M, M]) the output is also bounded.

A LTI system with an absolutely integrable impulse response, i.e.,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |h(t)| dt < \infty$$

is BIBO stable.

### Review of Laplace Transform

- The Laplace Transform
  - Important method of analysis for signal & image processing and process control
  - Definition:

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}[f(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{-st}dt \quad \text{where } s \text{ is a complex variable } (s = \sigma + j\omega)$$

- Things you can do with Laplace transform
  - Characterize system by a transfer function
  - Determine stability of system
  - Transform linear differential equations to algebraic equations
  - Launching point for frequency analysis

### **Laplace Transform**

- The Laplace Transform
  - What does it mean?
  - Consider an input signal  $x(t) = e^{st}$ where s is a complex number:  $s = \sigma + j\omega$
  - Consider the LTI system processing this input:

$$y(t) = S[x(t)] = S[e^{st}]$$

- Using the impulse response of the system h(t) and the convolution theorem:

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t-\tau)h(\tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{s(t-\tau)}h(\tau)d\tau = e^{st} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-s\tau}h(\tau)d\tau$$
$$y(t) = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau}d\tau\right]e^{st} = H(s)x(t)$$

- The Laplace Transform
  - What does it mean? ...
    - A way of characterizing LTI system in terms its eigenvalues & eigenfunctions

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t-\tau)h(\tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{s(t-\tau)}h(\tau)d\tau = e^{st} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-s\tau}h(\tau)d\tau$$
$$y(t) = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau}d\tau\right]e^{st} = H(s)x(t)$$

- The output is the input multiplied by the complex function H(s)
- In mathematical terms: The function  $e^{st}$  is an eigenfunction of the LTI system H(s) is the eigenvalue for the LTI system

Typically Laplace transform is a rational polynomial

$$F(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$$
 where  $N(s)$  and  $D(s)$  are polynomials in  $s$ 

Example: 
$$F(s) = \frac{2(s^2 + 1)}{s^2 + 2s + 5} = \frac{2(s + j)(s - j)}{(s + 1)^2 + 4} = \frac{2(s + j)(s - j)}{(s + 1 + 2j)(s + 1 - 2j)}$$

Written in this form to show poles and zeros of F(s)

Poles where denominator is zero, i.e., D(s) = 0 (F(s) becomes infinite)

Zeros where numerator is zero i.e., N(s) = 0 (F(s) is zero)

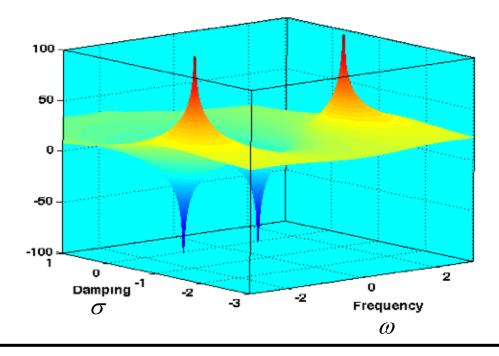
For example:

Poles at 
$$s = -1 + 2j$$
 and  $s = -1 - 2j$ 

Zeros at 
$$s = j$$
 and  $s = -j$ 

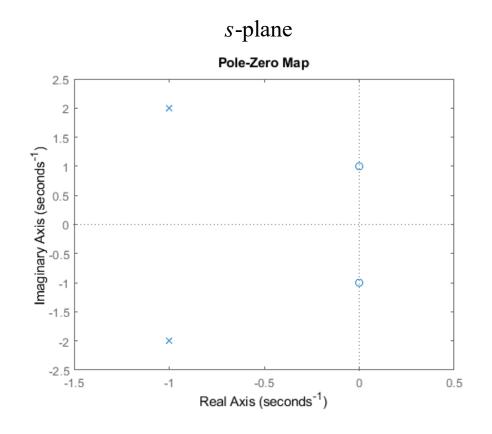
$$F(s) = \frac{2(s^2 + 1)}{s^2 + 2s + 5} = \frac{2(s + j)(s - j)}{(s + 1)^2 + 4} = \frac{2(s + j)(s - j)}{(s + 1 + 2j)(s + 1 - 2j)}$$

Plot of  $\log F(s)$ : zeros have  $\log 0 \to -\infty$ , poles have  $\log \infty \to \infty$ 



MATLAB has a nice function for plotting poles and zeros: pzmap

```
% Example of pzmap:
s = tf('s')
H1 = 2*(s^2+1)/(s^2+2*s+5)
figure(1)
pzmap(H1)
axis([-1.5,0.5,-2.5,2.5]);
% or
clear
H2 = tf([2,0,2],[1,2,5]);
figure(2)
pzmap(H2)
axis([-1.5,0.5,-2.5,2.5]);
```



- Region of convergence  $\left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-st} dt \right| = \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-\sigma t} e^{-j\omega t} dt \right| \le \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left| f(t) e^{-\sigma t} \right| dt < \infty$ 
  - You cannot have poles in the region of convergence
    - If you did, the integral would not converge absolutely
  - For a causal function

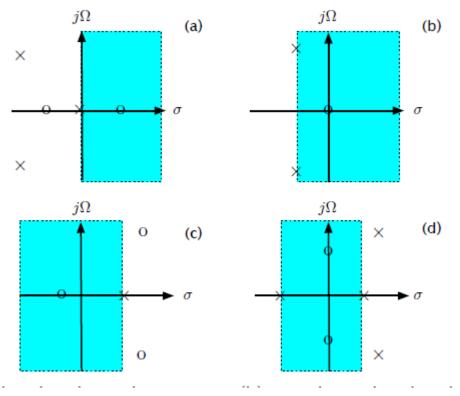
f(t) = 0 for t < 0, ROC is part of s-plane to the right of the poles.

For anti-causal function

f(t) = 0 for t > 0, ROC is part of s-plane to the left of the poles.

For non-causal:

f(t) is defined for  $-\infty < t < \infty$  ROC is intersection of causal and anti-causal parts between the poles on the right and left



- (a) Causal
- (b) Causal with poles to left of imaginary axis
- (c) Anti-causal
- (d) Non-causal (ROC bounded by poles)

- The Laplace Transform (one-sided, unilateral)
  - Maps a real-valued function of time, t, into a function of a complex variable s.

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}[f(t)] = \int_{0}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{-st}dt \quad \text{where } s \text{ is a complex variable } (s = \sigma + j\omega)$$

Convergence:

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st}dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-(\sigma+j\omega)t}dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-\sigma t}e^{j\omega t}dt$$

Converges if

$$\left| \int_{0}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st} dt \right| = \left| \int_{0}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-(\sigma + j\omega)t} dt \right| \le \int_{0}^{\infty} \left| f(t)e^{-\sigma t} \right| dt < \infty$$

- The Inverse Laplace Transform
  - The formal mathematical definition is:

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} F(s)e^{st} ds$$

where  $\sigma$  is large enough that F(s) is defined for  $Re(s) \ge \sigma$ 

- This formula is rarely used to find inverse.
- A more common way is to cast expression in the Laplace domain in a form that corresponds to entries in a table of Laplace transforms.
  - Often you have to reduce a complicated expression into a simpler one to do this.
  - Generally involves operations like **partial fractions** and **completing the square**.

#### **Inverse Laplace Transform**

- Key problem in finding inverse Laplace transform for complicated expressions involving *s* 
  - Need to get into simple form first
    - Usually involves partial fractions
    - Sometimes need to complete square
    - Sometimes need to be clever in rewriting terms
  - Often utilize the properties shown on following slides

#### LAPLACE TRANSFORM TABLE

$$\mathcal{L}(f(t)) = F(s) = \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{-st} dt$$

SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS		GENERAL RULES	
F(s)	f(t)	F(s)	f(t)
$\frac{1}{s}$	1	$\frac{e^{-as}}{s}$	u(t-a)
$\frac{1}{s^n}$ , $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$	$\frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$	$e^{-as}F(s)$	f(t-a)u(t-a)
$\frac{1}{s+a}$	$e^{-at}$	F(s-a)	$e^{at}f(t)$
$\frac{1}{(s+a)^n},  n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$	$e^{-at}\frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$	sF(s)-f(0)	f'(t)
$\frac{1}{s^2 + \omega^2}$	$\frac{\sin(\omega t)}{\omega}$	$s^2F(s) - sf(0) - f'(0)$	f''(t)
$\frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$	$\cos(\omega t)$	F'(s)	-tf(t)
$\frac{1}{(s+a)^2+\omega^2}$	$\frac{e^{-at}\sin(\omega t)}{\omega}$	$F^{(n)}(s)$	$(-t)^n f(t)$
$\frac{s+a}{(s+a)^2+\omega^2}$	$e^{-at}\cos(\omega t)$	$\frac{F(s)}{s}$	$\int_0^t f(u)du$
$\frac{1}{(s^2+\omega^2)^2}$	$\frac{\sin(\omega t) - \omega t \cos(\omega t)}{2\omega^3}$	F(s)G(s)	(f*g)(t)
$\frac{s}{(s^2 + \omega^2)^2}$	$\frac{t\sin(\omega t)}{2\omega}$		

#### **Common Laplace Transform Properties**

Name	Illustration	
	$f(t) \stackrel{L}{\longleftrightarrow} F(s)$	
Definition of Transform	$F(s) = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st}dt$	
Linearity	$Af_1(t) + Bf_2(t) \stackrel{L}{\longleftrightarrow} AF_1(s) + BF_2(s)$	
First Derivative	$\frac{df(t)}{dt} \longleftrightarrow sF(s) - f(0^{-})$	
Second Derivative	$\frac{d^2 f(t)}{dt^2} \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} s^2 F(s) - s f(0^-) - \dot{f}(0^-)$	
n <sup>th</sup> Derivative	$\frac{d^n f(t)}{dt^n} \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} s^n F(s) - \sum_{i=1}^n s^{n-i} f^{(i-1)}(0^-)$	
Integral	$\int_0^t f(\lambda) d\lambda \stackrel{L}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{1}{s} F(s)$	
Time Multiplication	$tf(t) \stackrel{L}{\longleftrightarrow} -\frac{dF(s)}{ds}$	
Time Delay	$f(t-a)\gamma(t-a) \stackrel{L}{\longleftrightarrow} e^{-as}F(s)$ $\gamma(t)$ is unit step	
Complex Shift	$f(t)e^{-at} \stackrel{L}{\longleftrightarrow} F(s+a)$	
Scaling	$f\left(\frac{t}{a}\right) \longleftrightarrow aF(as)$	
Convolution Property	$f_1(t) * f_2(t) \stackrel{L}{\longleftrightarrow} F_1(s) F_2(s)$	
Initial Value	$\lim_{t \to 0^+} f(t) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sF(s)$	
Final Value (if final value exists)	$\lim_{t \to \infty} f(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} sF(s)$	

- Straightforward to find some Laplace transforms from definitions
- Others can be found, starting from a simple function and using properties of transform
- Proof of Laplace transform properties is fairly straightforward starting from the definition.
  - We will not go through proofs of the properties
    - A good summary of the Laplace Transform and proofs of some properties can be found at:

The Laplace Transform (Prof. Cheever's website)

Click here more details about properties of Laplace transforms

#### Linearity

If  $F_1(s)$  and  $F_2(s)$  are, respectively, the Laplace Transforms of  $f_1(t)$  and  $f_2(t)$ 

$$L[a_1f_1(t) + a_2f_2(t)] = a_1F_1(s) + a_2F_2(s)$$

$$L[\cos(\omega t)u(t)] = L\left[\frac{1}{2}\left(e^{j\omega t} + e^{-j\omega t}\right)u(t)\right] = \frac{S}{S^2 + \omega^2}$$

#### **Time Shift**

If F(s) is the Laplace Transforms of f(t), then

$$L[f(t-a)u(t-a)] = e^{-as}F(s)$$

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

#### **Frequency Shift**

If F(s) is the Laplace Transforms of f(t), then

$$L[e^{-at}f(t)u(t)] = F(s+a)$$

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

#### **Scaling**

If F(s) is the Laplace Transforms of f(t), then

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

$$L[\sin(2\omega t)u(t)] = \frac{2\omega}{s^2 + 4\omega^2}$$

#### **Time Differentiation**

If F(s) is the Laplace Transforms of f(t), then the Laplace Transform of its derivative is

$$L\left[\frac{df}{dt}u(t)\right] = sF(s) - f(0^{-})$$

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

#### **Time Differentiation More Generally:**

For a signal f(t), with Laplace transform F(s), the one-sided Laplace transform of its first- and second-order derivatives are

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{df(t)}{dt}u(t)\right] = sF(s) - f(0-) \tag{3.14}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{d^2f(t)}{dt^2}u(t)\right] = s^2F(s) - sf(0-) - \frac{df(t)}{dt}|_{t=0-}$$
(3.15)

In general, if  $f^{(N)}(t)$  denotes the Nth-order derivative of a function f(t) that has a Laplace transform F(s), we have that

$$\mathcal{L}[f^{(N)}(t)u(t)] = s^N F(s) - \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} f^{(k)}(0-)s^{N-1-k}$$
(3.16)

where  $f^{(m)}(t) = d^m f(t)/dt^m$  is the mth-order derivative, m > 0, and  $f^{(0)}(t) \triangleq f(t)$ .

#### **Time Integration**

If F(s) is the Laplace Transforms of f(t), then the Laplace Transform of its integral is

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

Example:

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

Find this recursively, starting from  $L[1] = \frac{1}{2}$ 

$$t = \int_{0}^{t} 1 d\tau \Rightarrow L[t] = \frac{1}{s} \cdot \frac{1}{s} = \frac{1}{s^{2}}$$
$$\frac{t^{2}}{2} = \int_{0}^{t} \tau d\tau \Rightarrow L[t^{2}] = \frac{1}{s} \cdot \frac{2}{s^{2}} = \frac{2}{s^{3}}$$

$$\frac{t^2}{2} = \int_0^t \tau d\tau \Rightarrow L\left[t^2\right] = \frac{1}{s} \cdot \frac{2}{s^2} = \frac{2}{s^3}$$

#### **Frequency Differentiation**

If F(s) is the Laplace Transforms of f(t), then the derivative with respect to s, is

$$L[tf(t)] = -\frac{dF(s)}{ds}$$

$$L[te^{-at}u(t)] = \frac{1}{(s+a)^2}$$

#### **Initial and Final Values**

The initial-value and final-value properties allow us to find the initial value f(0) and  $f(\infty)$  of f(t) directly from its Laplace transform F(s).

$$f(0) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sF(s)$$

Initial-value theorem

$$f(\infty) = \lim_{s \to 0} sF(s)$$

Final-value theorem

#### The Convolution Integral

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

Given two functions,  $f_1(t)$  and  $f_2(t)$  with Laplace Transforms  $F_1(s)$  and  $F_2(s)$ , respectively

$$y(t) = 4e^{-t}$$
 and  $h(t) = 5e^{-2t}$ 

$$F_1(s)F_2(s) = L[f_1(t) * f_2(t)]$$

**Example:**  $h(t) = 5e^{-2t}u(t)$  ;  $x(t) = 4e^{-t}u(t)$ 

$$h(t) * x(t) = L^{-1} [H(s)X(s)] = L^{-1} \left[ \left( \frac{5}{s+2} \right) \left( \frac{4}{s+1} \right) \right] = 20(e^{-t} - e^{-2t}), \quad t \ge 0$$

