

Theoretical problems in integrals when discontinuities or singularities at one of the end points.

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

0 → possible problem here

Resolve these by taking lower limit at $t=\phi^-$
(the instant before $t=\phi$).

=> integral "sees" effect of Singularities ^{at} $t=\phi$.



Starting the integral at 0^- instead of 0^+

- Avoids singularities at end points
- Causes transform to "see" singularities and discontinuities at $t=0$, so their effects will be reflected in the solutions for $y(t)$.

Hence:

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

Implications:

Assumed ICs

for $y(t)$: just before
 $t=0$

$$\mathcal{Z}\{y(t)\} = SY(s) - y(\phi^-)$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\ddot{y}(t)\} = s^2 Y(s) - \dot{y}(\phi^-) - sy(\phi^-)$$

etc.

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\dot{u}(t)\} = SU(s) - u(\phi^-)$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\ddot{u}(t)\} = s^2 U(s) - \dot{u}(\phi^-) - su(\phi^-)$$

etc.

Always = 0 in our analysis!

$\Rightarrow b(s) = 0$ always

Thus:

$$Y(s) = \left[\frac{f(s)}{r(s)} \right] U(s) + \left[\frac{c(s) - b(s)}{r(s)} \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{f(s)}{r(s)} \right] U(s) + \left[\frac{c(s)}{r(s)} \right]$$

\Rightarrow IC polynomial $b(s)$ for input vanishes

\Rightarrow Specific to controls convention for $u(t)$

\Rightarrow Not a common assumption in regular math classes.

\Rightarrow In controls, want to know effect of discontinuities

Common, discontinuous "test functions"

$$u(t) = \mathbb{1}(t) \quad (\text{unit step}) \quad \mathcal{L}\{\mathbb{1}(t)\} = \frac{1}{s}$$

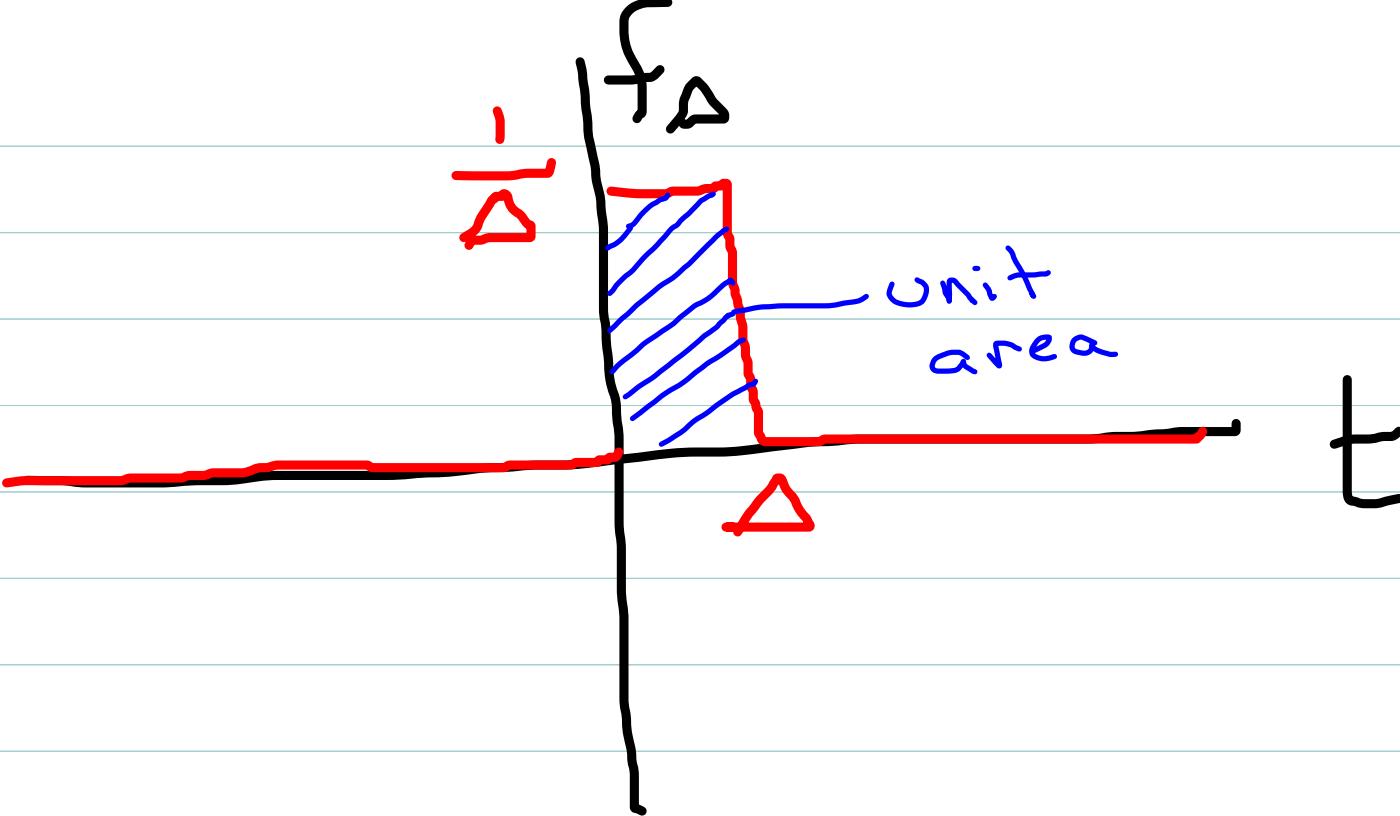
$$u(t) = \cos(\omega t) \mathbb{1}(t)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \cos(\omega t) & t \geq \phi \\ \phi & t < \phi \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow u(t) = f_{\Delta}(t)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Delta} & \phi \leq t \leq \Delta \\ \phi & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

"Unit pulse function"

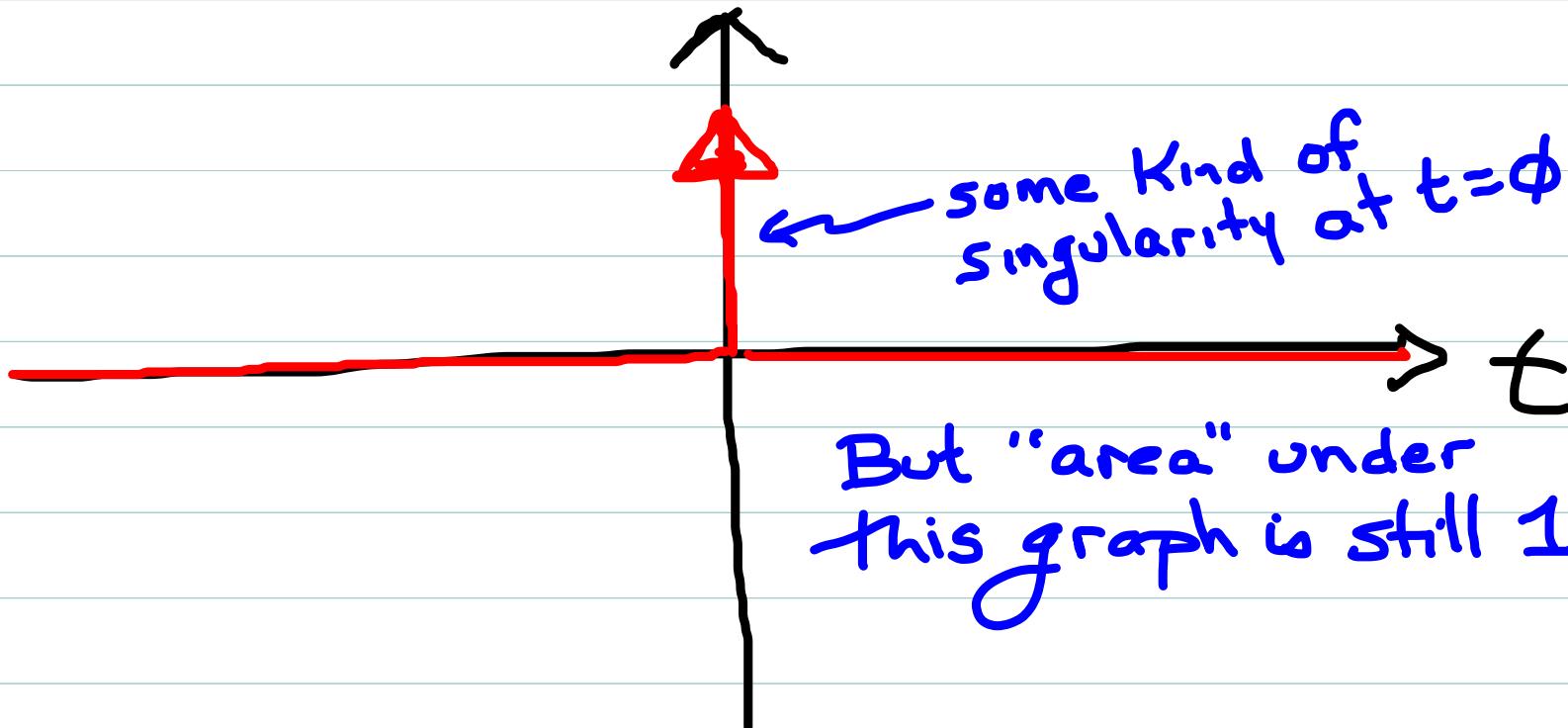


Note: for any $\Delta > 0$

$$\int_{0^-}^{\infty} f_{\Delta}(t) dt = \int_{0^-}^{\Delta} \left(\frac{1}{\Delta}\right) dt = 1$$

What is $\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} f_\Delta(t)$?

$$= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Delta} & \phi \leq t \leq \Delta \\ \phi & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \infty & t = \phi \\ \phi & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Define:

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} f_\Delta(t)$$

“ideal impulse”: models delivering a unit of input energy over negligibly small time.
(Sharp “Kick”)

Alternate names:

“delta function”
“impulse function”
“Dirac delta”

Note: Not really a meaningful function at all!

More formally, belongs to a class of mathematical objects called

“distributions” or “generalized functions”

Suppose $S(t)$ appears in an integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(t) h(t) dt, \quad h(t) \text{ arbitrary function}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} f_{\Delta}(t) \right] h(t) dt$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\Delta}(t) h(t) dt$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \frac{1}{\Delta} \int_{0^-}^{\Delta} h(t) dt \right\}$$

$$\approx \left(\frac{1}{\Delta} \right) (\Delta h(\phi))$$

$$= h(\phi)$$

Note: with $h(t) = 1$ for all t , we get

$$\int_{0^-}^{\infty} S(t) dt = 1$$

Defining Property of $\delta(t)$

$$\int_a^b \delta(t) h(t) dt = \begin{cases} h(0) & \text{if } 0 \in (a, b) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

"Sifting Property"

⇒ $\delta(t)$ is defined by what it does in an integral

Not as an ordinary function

Now we can compute:

$$\left[\mathcal{Z}\{\delta(t)\} = \int_{0^-}^{\infty} \delta(t) e^{-st} dt \right] = [e^{-st}]_{t=0} = 1$$

Thus:

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\delta(t)\} = 1 \quad \leftarrow$$

and by linearity:

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{Z}^{-1}\{c\} = c\delta(t)$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\{c\delta(t)\} = c \quad \text{for any constant } c.$$

=====

Now recall

$$\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{I}(t) = \begin{cases} \infty & t=0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

which looks like $\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{I}(t) = \delta(t)$.
Is this formally true?

$$\mathcal{Z}\left\{\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{I}(t)\right\} = S \mathcal{Z}\{\mathbb{I}(t)\} - \mathbb{I}(0^-)$$

Thus:

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\delta(t)\} = 1$$

and by linearity:

$$\mathcal{Z}\{c\delta(t)\} = c \quad \text{for any constant } c.$$

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Now recall //

$$\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{I}(t) = \begin{cases} \infty & t=0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

which looks like
Is this formally true?

$$\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{I}(t) = \delta(t).$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\left\{\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{I}(t)\right\} = S \mathcal{Z}\{\mathbb{I}(t)\} - \mathbb{I}(0) \xrightarrow{S} 0$$

$$= 1 = \mathcal{Z}\{\delta(t)\}$$

YES

Recap: Unit Impulse

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} f_\Delta(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t \neq 0 \\ \infty & t = 0 \end{cases}$$

"Sifting Property":

$$\int_a^b \delta(t) h(t) dt = \begin{cases} h(0) & \text{if } 0 \in [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Laplace Transform:

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

Useful property:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{1}(t) = \delta(t)$$

Impulse Response

The impulse response of a system is the output $y(t)$ when $u(t) = \delta(t)$ and all ICs on $y(t)$ are zero.

$$Y(s) = G(s)U(s) + \frac{[c(s) - b(s)]}{r(s)}$$

$$\Rightarrow u(t) = \delta(t) \Rightarrow b(s) = \emptyset \text{ and } U(s) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{all ICs on } y(t) \text{ zero} \Rightarrow c(s) = \emptyset$$

So:

$$Y(s) = G(s)$$

and thus

$$y(t) = \mathcal{J}^{-1}\{G(s)\} \triangleq g(t)$$

The impulse response $g(t)$ is the inverse transform of the transfer function $G(s)$

Conversely, Knowledge (or measurement) of $g(t)$ tells us what the transfer function is, and hence the governing diff'l eq'n's.

\Rightarrow Foundation of "System identification" theory.

Additional Laplace Property

for any two functions $f_1(t), f_2(t)$ with transforms $F_1(s), F_2(s)$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{F_1(s)F_2(s)\} = \int_{0^-}^{\infty} f_1(t-\tau)f_2(\tau) d\tau$$

“convolution”

Implication: $\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{G(s)U(s)\} = \int_{0^-}^{\infty} g(t-\tau)U(\tau) d\tau$

proving generally what we showed specifically
for the hovercraft problem.

There we had $\ddot{y}(t) = K u(t)$

$$\Rightarrow G(s) = \frac{K}{s^2} \Rightarrow g(t) = Kt \quad \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s^2}\right\} = t$$

and thus $g(t-\tau) = K(t-\tau)$.

Note:

Laplace actually lets us "divide out" the effect of any known input to recover the transfer function (impulse response)

$$Y(s) = G(s)U(s) \quad (\text{assuming } \emptyset \text{ ICs})$$

$$[Y(s) = G(s)U(s)] \times \left(\frac{1}{U(s)}\right)$$

$$\left[\frac{Y(s)}{U(s)}\right] = G(s) \left[\frac{U(s)}{U(s)}\right]$$

$$= \boxed{G(s) \cdot 1} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{response to} \\ \text{ideal impulse.} \end{matrix}$$

Structure of Impulse Response

$$g(t) = \mathcal{Z}^{-1}\{G(s)\} = \mathcal{Z}^{-1}\left\{\frac{q(s)}{r(s)}\right\}$$
$$= \mathcal{Z}^{-1}\left\{\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\gamma_k}{(s-p_k)}\right\} \quad p_k \text{ poles of } G(s)$$

or

$$g(t) = \sum_{k=1}^n \gamma_k e^{p_k t}$$

$$\gamma_k = [(s-p_k) G(s)]_{s=p_k}$$

(assuming non-repeated modes for simplicity)

$$g(t) = \sum_{k=1}^n \gamma_k e^{p_k t}$$

Note:

$\Rightarrow g(t)$ is a specific linear combination
of the modes.

\Rightarrow Like a special homogeneous response

Alternate characterization of system stability

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} |g(t)| \rightarrow 0$$

(if system is
stable)

Impulse response in state-space

For a state-space model recall: $G(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$

Assume $D=0$ for simplicity (most common case)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{then } g(t) &= \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{C(sI - A)^{-1}B\} \\ &= C\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{(sI - A)^{-1}\}B \quad (\text{linearity})\end{aligned}$$

Let $\phi(s) \triangleq (sI - A)^{-1}$ ($n \times n$ matrix)

and $\phi(t) \triangleq \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{\phi(s)\}$ ($n \times n$ matrix)

Then

$$g(t) = C\phi(t)B$$

\Rightarrow what is this matrix $\phi(t)$??

Matrix Exponential Function

Note for scalar a ,

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s-a}\right\} = \mathcal{L}\left\{(s-a)^{-1}\right\} = e^{at}$$

By analogy

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\Phi(s)\right\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{(sI-A)^{-1}\right\} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} e^{At}$$

The "matrix exponential function"

How to calculate it?

Laplace (and its inverse) works on matrices just like it does on vectors:

Apply inverse transform to each entry of $\Phi(s) = (sI-A)^{-1}$ (so n^2 inverse transforms ugh!)

General Observations

Recall that $\phi(s) = (s\mathbb{I} - A)^{-1} = \frac{\Phi(s)}{r(s)}$

$\Phi(s) = \text{Adj}(s\mathbb{I} - A)$ $n \times n$ matrix of polynomials in s

$r(s) = \text{Det}(s\mathbb{I} - A)$ ordinary polynomial in s

Hence:

- 1.) Each entry of $\Phi(s)$ is rational
 \Rightarrow can use PFE tricks for inverse xform
- 2.) Each entry of $\Phi(s)$ has same denom,
hence same poles (roots of $r(s)$)

Recall: roots of $r(s)$ same as eigenvalues of A

Thus: Each entry of $C^{At} = \mathcal{J}^{-1} \{ (s\mathbb{I} - A)^{-1} \} \mathcal{J}$
will be a linear combination of $e^{\lambda_k t}$
where λ_k are eigenvalues of A

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -6 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{companion form. By inspection}$$

$$r(s) = s^2 + 5s + 6 = (s+2)(s+3)$$

\Rightarrow each entry of e^{At} is a linear comb. of e^{-2t}, e^{-3t}

$$(sI - A) = \begin{bmatrix} s & -1 \\ 6 & s+5 \end{bmatrix} \quad Q(s) = \text{Adj}(sI - A) = \begin{bmatrix} s+5 & 1 \\ -6 & s \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(sI - A)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{s+5}{(s+2)(s+3)} & \frac{1}{(s+2)(s+3)} \\ \frac{-6}{(s+2)(s+3)} & \frac{s}{(s+2)(s+3)} \end{bmatrix}$$

inverse x-form each entry separately using PFE

Example, Cont

(1,1) $\frac{S+5}{(S+2)(S+3)} = \frac{A_1}{S+2} + \frac{A_2}{S+3}$ $A_1 = \frac{-2+5}{1} = 3$
 $A_2 = \frac{-3+5}{-1} = -2$

(1,2) $\frac{1}{(S+2)(S+3)} = \frac{A_1}{S+2} + \frac{A_2}{S+3}$ $A_1 = \frac{1}{1} = 1$
 $A_2 = \frac{1}{-1} = -1$

(2,1) $\frac{-6}{(S+2)(S+3)}$ is just $-6 \times \left(\frac{1}{(S+2)(S+3)} \right)$

(2,2) $\frac{S}{(S+2)(S+3)} = \frac{A_1}{S+2} + \frac{A_2}{S+3}$ $A_1 = \frac{-2}{1} = -2$
 $A_2 = \frac{-3}{-1} = 3$

Thus here:

$$e^{At} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{(S\mathbb{I} - A)^{-1}\} = \begin{bmatrix} 3e^{-2t} - 2e^{-3t} & e^{-2t} - e^{-3t} \\ 6(e^{-3t} - e^{-2t}) & 3e^{-3t} - 2e^{-2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Recap

So with a state-space model we equivalently have

$$g(t) = C e^{At} B$$

where:

- e^{At} is an $n \times n$ matrix
- each entry of e^{At} is a linear combination of modes
- modes determined by poles $\xrightarrow{(P_k)}$ eigenvalues of A $\xrightarrow{(\lambda_k)}$

and thus:

$$g(t) = C e^{At} B = \sum_{k=1}^n \gamma_k e^{P_k t}$$

a linear combination of modes, just like before.

Step Responses

The (unit) step response of a system is the output $y(t)$ when $u(t) = 1(t)$ and all ICs on $y(t)$ are zero.

$$Y(s) = G(s)U(s) + \frac{[C(s) - b(s)]}{r(s)}$$

$$U(s) = \frac{1}{s} \text{ here, so}$$

$$Y(s) = \left(\frac{1}{s}\right)G(s) = \frac{g(s)}{s r(s)}$$

Intermediate Case 3 Situations

If $1.1 < \frac{|P_2|}{|P_1|} < 5$ (or 8 or 10)

$$\frac{4}{|P_1|} < t_s < \frac{6}{|P_1|}$$

Unfortunately, there is no simple formula for interpolating between the two limits based on the exact ratio.