EE120 - Fall'15 - Lecture 16 Notes¹ Murat Arcak 26 October 2015

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Section 9.4.3 in Oppenheim & Willsky

All-Pass Systems

What is the frequency response of an LTI system with transfer func-



General all-pass system:

$$H_{ap}(s) = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} (a_i - s)}{\prod_{i=1}^{n} (s + a_i)}, \quad a_i > 0 \quad i = 1, ..., n.$$
(1)

For a stable and causal all-pass system, all zeros are in the right halfplane because they are mirror images of the poles.

Although $|H_{ap}(j\omega)| \equiv 1$, an all-pass system introduces delay:

$$e^{j\omega t} \rightarrow H_{ap}(j\omega) \rightarrow H_{ap}(j\omega)e^{j\omega t} = e^{j\angle H_{ap}(j\omega)}e^{j\omega t} = e^{j\omega(t-\tau(\omega))}e^{j\omega t}$$

where:

$$\tau(\omega) \triangleq -\frac{\measuredangle H_{ap}(j\omega)}{\omega} > 0.$$

Moreover, the system is not linear phase (i.e. $\tau(\omega)$ is not constant); therefore it causes phase distortion. (Recall Lecture 8.)

Minimum Phase Systems

A stable and causal LTI system is called *minimum phase* if all of its zeros are in the open left half-plane.

Any non-minimum phase transfer function H(s) can be decomposed as:

$$H(s) = \underbrace{H_{min}(s)}_{\text{min-phase all-pass}} \underbrace{H_{ap}(s)}_{\text{all-pass}}$$
(2)

This decomposition explains the genesis of the term *minimum phase*:

$$|H(j\omega)| = |H_{min}(j\omega)|$$
 since $|H_{ap}(j\omega)| \equiv 1$,

but the all-pass component adds more delay. Therefore, H(s) and $H_{min}(s)$ have identical frequency responses in magnitude, but $H_{min}(s)$ has the minimum phase delay.



If $H_d(s)$ is minimum phase, we can simply choose $H_c(s) = \frac{1}{H_d(s)}$. If $H_d(s)$ is nonminimum phase, $H_c(s) = \frac{1}{H_d(s)}$ is unstable. To avoid instability, decompose: $H_d(s) = H_{d,min}(s)H_{d,ap}(s)$ and select:

$$H_c(s) = \frac{1}{H_{d,min}(s)} \implies \underbrace{H_d(s)H_c(s) = H_{d,ap}(s)}_{\text{magnitude distortion eliminated}}$$

Transfer Functions of Interconnected LTI Systems

Section 9.8 in Oppenheim & Willsky



Example: Feedback Control



r(t): reference signal to be tracked by y(t) $H_c(s)$: controller, $H_p(s)$: system to be controlled - "plant"

$$H(s) = \frac{H_c(s)H_p(s)}{1 + H_c(s)H_p(s)}$$

Example:

Take constant gain controller: $H_c(s) = K$



The Unilateral Laplace Transform

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

Identical to the bilateral Laplace transform if x(t) = 0 for t < 0.

Example:
$$x(t) = e^{-a(t+1)}u(t+1)$$

$$X(s) = \frac{e^{s}}{s+a} \qquad Re\{s\} > -a$$
$$\mathcal{X}(s) = \frac{e^{-a}}{s+a} \qquad Re\{s\} > -a$$

Properties of the unilateral Laplace transform

Most properties of the bilateral Laplace transform also hold for the unilateral Laplace transform.

Exceptions:

Convolution:

$$x_1(t) * x_2(t) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{X}_1(s)\mathcal{X}_2(s)$$
 if $x_1(t) = x_2(t) = 0$ for all $t < 0$

This follows from the convolution property of the bilateral Laplace transform which coincides with the unilateral transform because $x_1(t) = x_2(t) = 0$, t < 0.

Differentiation in Time:

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} \longleftrightarrow s\mathcal{X}(s) - x(0^-)$$

Repeated application gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \right\} \longleftrightarrow s \left(s \mathcal{X}(s) - x(0^-) \right) - \frac{dx}{dt} (0^-) \\ &= s^2 \mathcal{X}(s) - s x(0^-) - \frac{dx}{dt} (0^-) \\ \frac{d^3 x(t)}{dt^3} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} \right\} \longleftrightarrow s \left(s^2 \mathcal{X}(s) - s x(0^-) - \frac{dx}{dt} (0^-) \right) - \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} (0^-) \\ &= s^3 \mathcal{X}(s) - s^2 x(0^-) - s \frac{dx}{dt} (0^-) - \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} (0^-) \end{aligned}$$

Section 9.9 in Oppenheim & Willsky

Solving differential equations with the unilateral Laplace transform

Example:

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

Initial condition $y(0^-) = a$, $\frac{dy}{dt}(0^-) = b$.

$$(s^{2}Y(s) - as - b) + 3(sY(s) - a) + 2Y(s) = \frac{1}{s-1}$$
$$(s^{2} + 3s + 2)Y(s) = as + b + 3a + \frac{1}{s-1} = \frac{as^{2} + (b+2a)s + (1-b-3a)}{s-1}$$
$$Y(s) = \frac{as^{2} + (b+2a)s + (1-b-3a)}{(s+1)(s+2)(s-1)}$$

Partial fraction expansion:

$$Y(s) = \frac{A_1}{s+1} + \frac{A_2}{s+2} + \frac{B}{s-1}$$

=
$$\frac{(A_1 + A_2 + B)s^2 + (A_1 + 3B)s + (2B - 2A_1 - A_2)}{(s+1)(s+2)(s-1)}$$

Match coefficients:

Then,

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{6}e^{t} + \left(-\frac{1}{2} + 2a + b\right)e^{-t} + \left(\frac{1}{3} - a - b\right)e^{-2t} \quad t \ge 0.$$

Compare this to the standard method for solving linear constant coefficient differential equations:

The first term in y(t) above is the particular solution. If we substitute $y_p(t) = \frac{1}{6}e^t$ in (4):

$$\frac{d^2y_p(t)}{dt^2} + 3\frac{dy_p}{dt} + 2y_p(t) = e^t.$$

The second and third terms constitute the homogeneous solution. If we substitute $y_h(t) = A_1 e^{-t} + A_2 e^{-2t}$:

$$\frac{d^2y_h(t)}{dt^2} + 3\frac{dy_h}{dt} + 2y_h(t) = 0.$$

Thus, $y(t) = y_p(t) + y_h(t)$ and A_1 and A_2 are selected to satisfy the initial conditions.