

Chapter 6 The Laplace Transform

6-1 Definition of the Laplace Transform

1. For a linear time-invariant (LTI) system with impulse response $h(t)$, the output $y(t)$ corresponding to the input of the form e^{st} is

$$y(t) = \underbrace{H(s)}_{\text{eigenvalue}} \cdot \underbrace{e^{st}}_{\text{eigenfunction}} \quad (6.1)$$

where

$$H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t) e^{-st} dt \quad (6.2)$$

is referred to as the Laplace transform of $h(t)$. Replacing s by $j\omega$, we have

$$H(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt. \quad (6.3)$$

This is called the Fourier transform of $h(t)$.

2. The Laplace transform of a general signal $x(t)$:

$$\begin{cases} X(s) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt \equiv \mathcal{L}\{x(t)\} \\ x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s) \end{cases} \quad (6.4)$$

$$X(s) \Big|_{s=j\omega} = X(j\omega) = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)\} \quad (6.5)$$

3. The Laplace transform of $x(t)$ can be interpreted as the Fourier transform of $x(t)$ after multiplication by a real exponential.

$$\begin{aligned} s &= \sigma + j\omega \\ X(s) &= X(\sigma + j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-(\sigma + j\omega)t} dt \\ \Rightarrow &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [x(t) e^{-\sigma t}] e^{-j\omega t} dt = \mathcal{F}\{x(t) e^{-\sigma t}\} \end{aligned} \quad (6.6)$$

Example 6.1: $x(t) = e^{-at}u(t)$, $X(j\omega)$ converges for $a > 0$ $\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt < \infty\right)$.

$$X(j\omega) = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-at} e^{-j\omega t} dt = \frac{1}{j\omega + a}, \quad a > 0$$

$$X(s) = \mathcal{L}\{x(t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(s+a)t} dt$$

With $s = \sigma + j\omega$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X(\sigma + j\omega) &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(\sigma+a)t} \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt = \mathcal{F}\{e^{-(\sigma+a)t}u(t)\} \\ &= \frac{1}{j\omega + (\sigma + a)}, \quad \sigma + a > 0, \text{ i.e., } \sigma > -a \text{ or } \operatorname{Re}\{s\} > -a \\ &= \frac{1}{s + a}, \quad \operatorname{Re}\{s\} > -a \\ \Rightarrow X(s) &= \frac{1}{s + a}, \quad \operatorname{Re}\{s\} > -a \end{aligned}$$

Note:

- The Laplace transform converges for some values of $\operatorname{Re}\{s\}$, and not for the others.
- The existence of the Laplace transform does not imply the existence of the Fourier transform, e.g., $x(t) = e^{-at}u(t)$, $a < 0$.

■

Example 6.2: $x(t) = -e^{-at}u(-t)$

$$\begin{aligned} X(s) &= -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-at} e^{-st} u(-t) dt = -\int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-(s+a)t} dt = \frac{1}{s+a} \\ &\left(= -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(\sigma+a)t} e^{-j\omega t} u(-t) dt = -\mathcal{F}\{e^{-(\sigma+a)t}u(-t)\} \right) \\ &\left(\because t < 0, \therefore \sigma + a < 0 \Rightarrow \sigma < -a \right) \end{aligned}$$

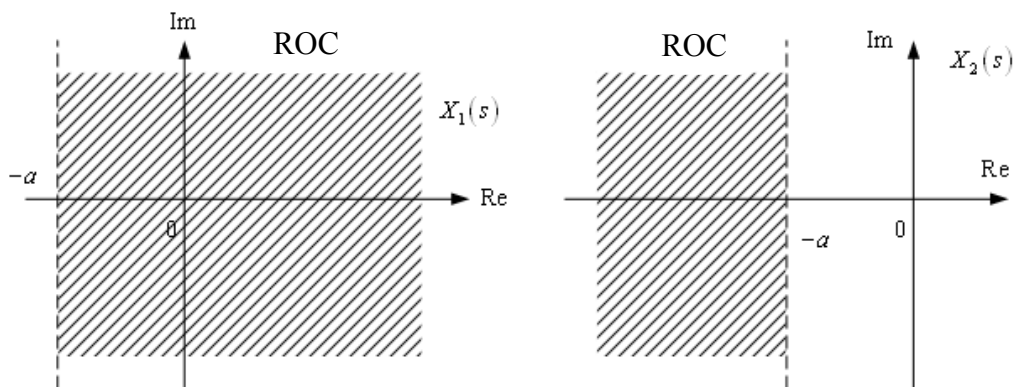
$$\Rightarrow X(s) \text{ exists only for } \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -a.$$

Note:

- In specifying the Laplace transform of a signal, both the algebraic expression and the range of values for which this expression is valid are required.
- The range of values for which the Laplace transform exists is referred to as the region of convergence (ROC) of the Laplace transform.

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Example 6.3: The ROCs of $X_1(s) = \mathcal{L}\{e^{-at}u(t)\} = 1/(s+a)$ in Example 6.1 and $X_2(s) = \mathcal{L}\{-e^{-at}u(-t)\} = 1/(s+a)$ in Example 6.2 are illustrated as follows:



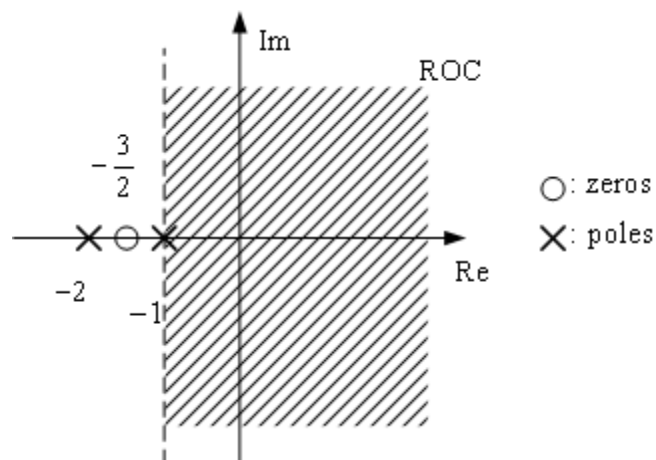
Example 6.4: $x(t) = e^{-t}u(t) + e^{-2t}u(t)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 X(s) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [e^{-t}u(t) + e^{-2t}u(t)] e^{-st} dt \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t} e^{-st} u(t) dt + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2t} e^{-st} u(t) dt \\
 &= \frac{1}{s+1} + \frac{1}{s+2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1 \\
 &\left(\begin{aligned}
 &= \underbrace{\mathcal{L}\{e^{-t}u(t)\}}_{\frac{1}{s+1}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1} + \underbrace{\mathcal{L}\{e^{-2t}u(t)\}}_{\frac{1}{s+2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -2} \\
 &\Rightarrow \mathcal{L}\{e^{-t}u(t) + e^{-2t}u(t)\} = \frac{1}{s+1} + \frac{1}{s+2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1 \\
 &= \frac{2s+3}{s^2+3s+2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1 \\
 &= \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} \rightarrow \text{numerator polynomial} \\
 &= \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} \rightarrow \text{denominator polynomial}
 \end{aligned} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Note:

- Whenever $x(t)$ is a linear combination of real or complex exponentials, $X(s)$ can be expressed by $X(s) = N(s)/D(s)$, i.e., $X(s)$ is rational.
- The roots of the numerator polynomial (denominator polynomial) are referred to as the zeros (poles) of $X(s)$ since for those values of s , $X(s) = 0$ ($X(s) \rightarrow \infty$).
- $X(s) = N(s)/D(s)$
 - [The order of $N(s)$] < [The order of $D(s)$]
 - \Rightarrow exist zeros at infinity ($s \rightarrow \infty, X(s) \rightarrow 0$)
 - [The order of $N(s)$] > [The order of $D(s)$]
 - \Rightarrow exist poles at infinity ($s \rightarrow \infty, X(s) \rightarrow \infty$)
- The representation of $X(s) = N(s)/D(s)$ through its poles and zeros in the s -plane is referred to as the pole-zero diagram or the pole-zero plot.

Example 6.5: $X(s) = \frac{2s+3}{s^2+3s+2}$



Example 6.6: $x(t) = \delta(t) - \frac{4}{3}e^{-t}u(t) + \frac{1}{3}e^{2t}u(t)$

$$\delta(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} 1, \text{ ROC: entire } s \text{ plane}$$

$$\frac{4}{3}e^{-t}u(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{s+1}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1$$

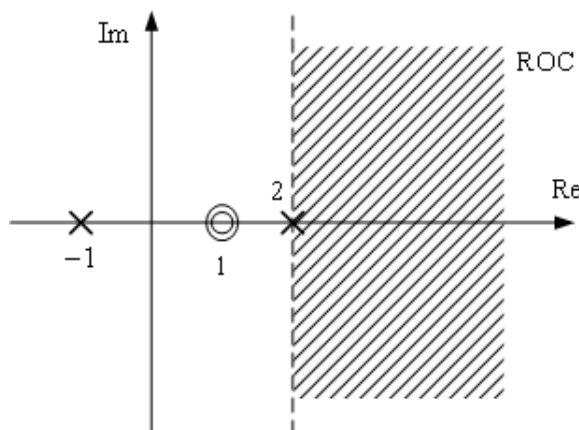
$$\frac{1}{3}e^{2t}u(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{s-2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > 2$$

$$\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{2t} e^{-st} u(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{(2-\sigma)t} e^{-j\omega t} u(t) dt, 2-\sigma < 0 \Rightarrow \sigma > 2 \Rightarrow \text{Re}\{s\} > 2 \right)$$

$$X(s) = 1 - \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{s+1} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{s-2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > 2$$

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

We will refer to the order of pole or zero as the number of times it is repeated at a given location.



6-2 Properties of the ROC for Laplace Transforms

1. The ROC of $X(s)$ consists of strips parallel to the $j\omega$ -axis in the s -plane.

Example 6.7: $X(s)$ converges only for $\text{Re}\{s\} > a$ (or $\text{Re}\{s\} < a$). The ROC depends only on the real part of s . ■

2. For rational Laplace transforms, the ROC does not contain any poles.

$$s = \text{pole} \Rightarrow X(s) \rightarrow \infty$$

3. If $x(t)$ is of finite duration and if there is at least one value of s for which the Laplace transform converges, then the ROC is the entire s -plane.

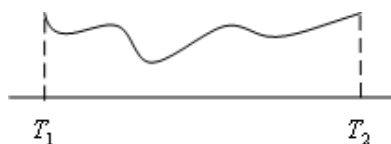


Figure 6.1 A finite-duration signal.

Proof:

Let $x(t)$ be zero outside the interval between T_1 and T_2 . Then

$$X(s) = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} x(t) e^{-st} dt. \quad (6.7)$$

Assume that the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$ is in the ROC. Then

$$\int_{T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} dt < \infty. \quad (6.8)$$

- (1) For $\sigma_1 > \sigma_0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_1 t} dt &= \int_{T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)t} dt \\ &\leq e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)T_1} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} dt < \infty \end{aligned} \quad (6.9)$$

where the maximum value of $e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)t}$ in the interval of integration is $e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)T_1}$.

This implies that the s -plane for $\text{Re}\{s\} > \sigma_0$ is in the ROC.

- (2) For $\sigma_2 < \sigma_0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_2 t} dt &= \int_{T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} e^{-(\sigma_2 - \sigma_0)t} dt \\ &\leq e^{-(\sigma_2 - \sigma_0)T_2} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} dt < \infty. \end{aligned} \quad (6.10)$$

This implies that the s -plane for $\text{Re}\{s\} > \sigma_0$ is in the ROC. From (1) and (2), we can see that the ROC of a finite-duration signal includes the entire s -plane. ■

4. If $x(t)$ is right-sided and if the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$ is in the ROC, then all values of s for which $\text{Re}\{s\} > \sigma_0$ will also be in the ROC.

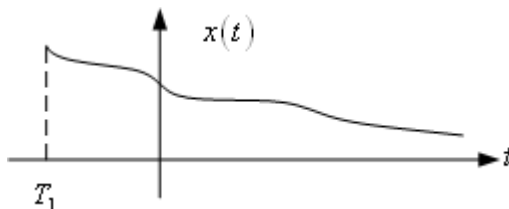


Figure 6.2 A right-sided signal.

Note: For some special signals such as $x(t) = e^{t^2} u(t)$, the corresponding Laplace transforms do not exist, i.e., there is no value of s for which the Laplace transforms converge.

Suppose that the Laplace transform of $x(t)$ converges for some value of σ , denoted by σ_0 . Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} dt < \infty \tag{6.11}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{T_1}^{\infty} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} dt < \infty. \tag{6.12}$$

For $\sigma_1 > \sigma_0$,

$$\int_{T_1}^{\infty} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_1 t} dt = \int_{T_1}^{\infty} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)t} dt \leq e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)T_1} \int_{T_1}^{\infty} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma_0 t} dt < \infty \tag{6.13}$$

where the maximum value of $e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)t}$ in the interval of integration is $e^{-(\sigma_1 - \sigma_0)T_1}$. So the ROC includes the s -plane right to the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$. The ROC is shown as follows:

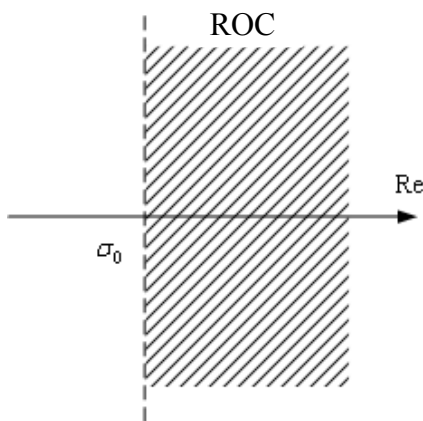


Figure 6.3 The ROC of a right-sided signal.

5. If $x(t)$ is left-sided and if the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$ is in the ROC, then all values of s for which $\text{Re}\{s\} < \sigma_0$ will also be in the ROC. An example of this case is shown as follows:

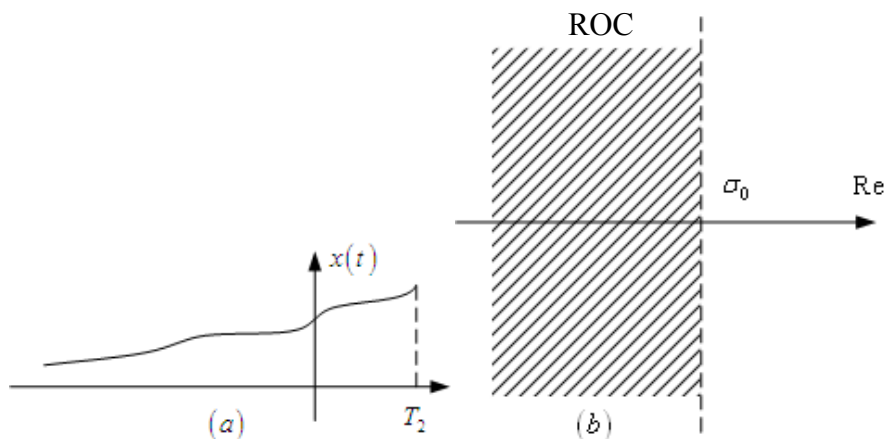


Figure 6.4 (a) A left-sided signal; (b) the ROC of a left-sided signal.

6. If $x(t)$ is two-sided and if the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$ is in the ROC, then the ROC will consist of a strip in the s -plane which includes the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$.

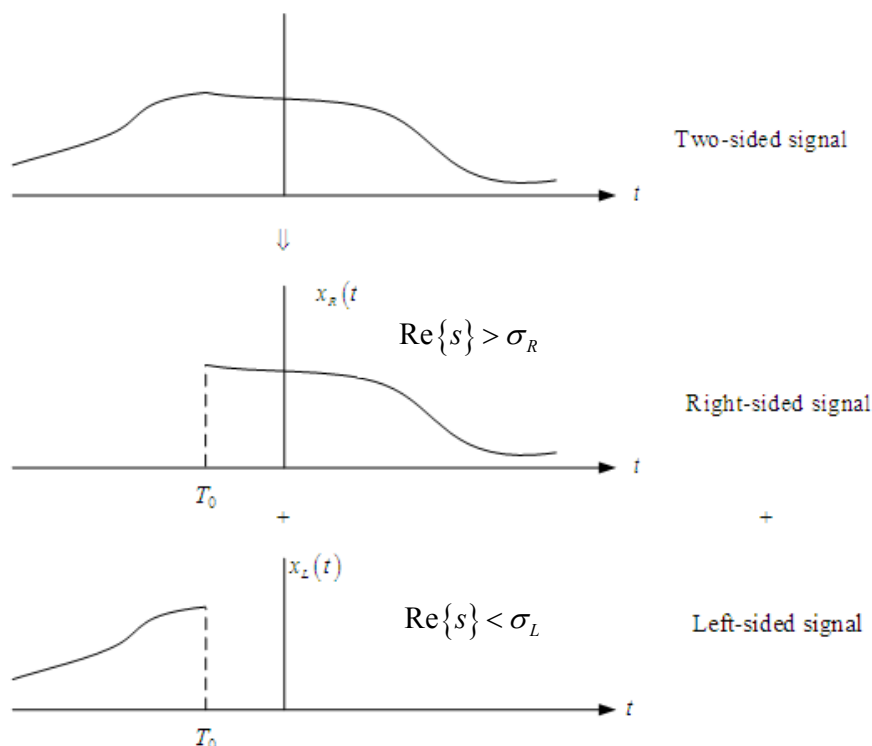


Figure 6.5 A two-sided signal divided into the sum of a right-sided signal and a left-sided signal.

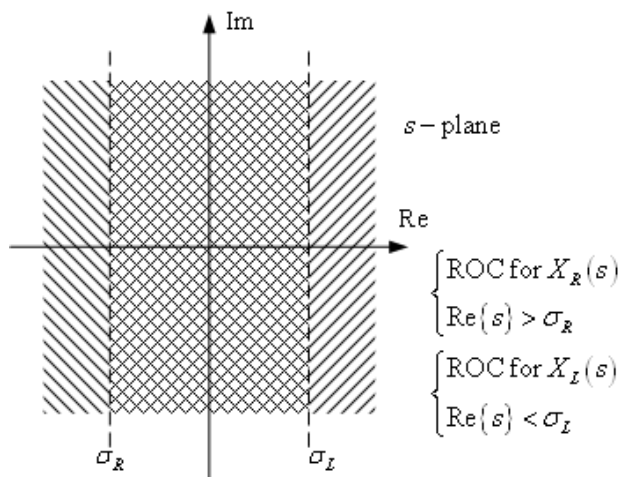


Figure 6.6 The ROCs for the Laplace transforms of $x_R(t)$ and $x_L(t)$, assuming that they overlap. The overlap of the two ROCs is the ROC for $x(t) = x_R(t) + x_L(t)$.

Note:

- σ_L must be greater than σ_R ; otherwise, the Laplace transform of $x(t)$ does not exist.

Example 6.8: Consider a finite-duration sequence given by

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-at}, & 0 < t < T \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Find the Laplace transform $X(s)$ and its ROC.

$$X(s) = \int_0^T e^{-at} e^{-st} dt = \frac{1}{s+a} [1 - e^{-(s+a)T}]$$

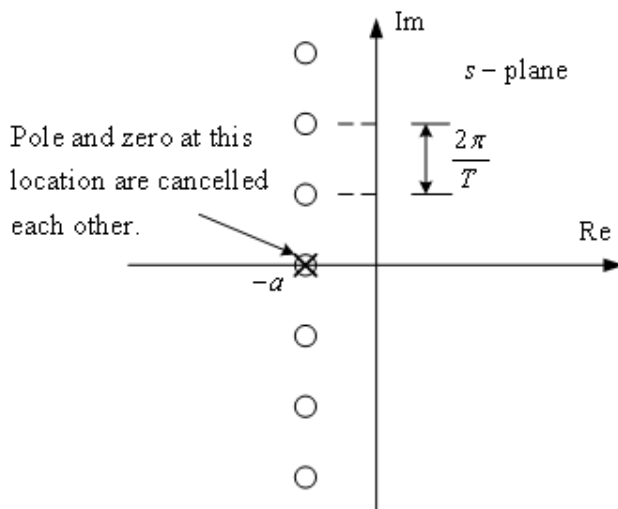
$$\left(\begin{array}{l} \left. \begin{array}{l} s = -a \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} s+a \rightarrow 0 \\ 1 - e^{-(s+a)T} \rightarrow 0 \end{array} \end{array} \right\} \\ \therefore \lim_{s \rightarrow -a} X(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow -a} \frac{\frac{d}{ds} [1 - e^{-(s+a)T}]}{\frac{d}{ds} (s+a)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow -a} T e^{-aT} e^{-sT} = T \end{array} \right)$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} X(s) \text{ has no poles.} \\ X(s) \text{ has an infinite number of zeros.} \end{array} \right.$

$$1 - e^{-(s+a)T} = 0 \Rightarrow (s+a)T = j2\pi k, \quad k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow s = -a + j \frac{2\pi k}{T}, \quad k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

The ROC is the entire s-plane and the pole-zero diagram is as follows:

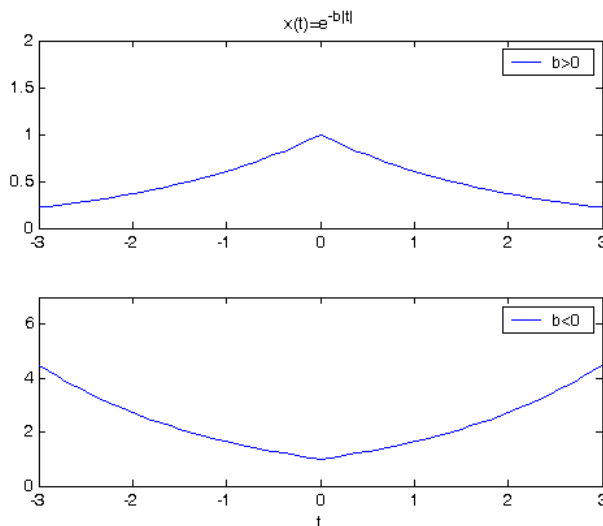


Example 6.9: $x(t) = e^{-b|t|}$

$$x(t) = \underbrace{e^{-bt}u(t)}_{\text{right-sided}} + \underbrace{e^{bt}u(-t)}_{\text{left-sided}}$$

$$e^{-bt}u(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+b}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -b$$

$$e^{bt}u(-t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{-1}{s-b}, \text{Re}\{s\} < +b$$

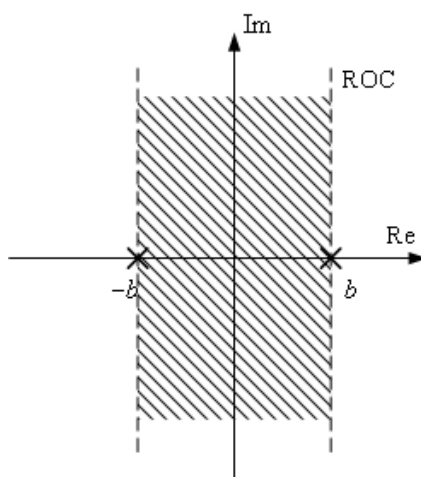


For $b < 0$, there is no common region of convergence. $\Rightarrow x(t)$ has no Laplace transform if $b < 0$.

For $b > 0$,

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+b} - \frac{1}{s-b} = \frac{-2b}{s^2 - b^2}, \quad -b < \text{Re}\{s\} < b.$$

The pole-zero diagram with ROC is shown as follows:



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7. Summary for the ROC:

Finite-duration signal \rightarrow $\begin{cases} \text{entire } s\text{-plane} \\ \text{does not exist} \end{cases}$

Right-sided signal \rightarrow $\begin{cases} \text{right-half } s\text{-plane} \\ \text{does not exist} \end{cases}$

Left-sided signal \rightarrow $\begin{cases} \text{left-half } s\text{-plane} \\ \text{does not exist} \end{cases}$

Two-sided signal \rightarrow $\begin{cases} \text{a strip} \\ \text{does not exist} \end{cases}$

Note:

- The ROC is bounded by poles or extends to infinity.
- For a right-sided signal, the ROC is the region in the s -plane to the right of the rightmost pole.
- For a left-sided signal, the ROC is the region in the s -plane to the left of the leftmost pole.

6-3 The Inverse Laplace Transform

$$X(\sigma + j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x(t)e^{-\sigma t})e^{-j\omega t} dt = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)e^{-\sigma t}\}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t)e^{-\sigma t} = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{X(\sigma + j\omega)\} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\sigma + j\omega)e^{j\omega t} d\omega \quad (6.14)$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\sigma + j\omega)e^{j\omega t} e^{\sigma t} d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\sigma + j\omega)e^{(\sigma + j\omega)t} d\omega \quad (6.15)$$

If we change the variable of integration from ω to s and use the fact that σ is constant so that $ds = jd\omega$, we obtain

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} X(s)e^{st} ds. \quad (6.16)$$

where σ is any value in the ROC of $X(s)$. This is the basic inverse Laplace transform equation that requires the use of contour integration along a vertical line in the complex s -plane. For rational Laplace transforms, a much simpler technique using partial-fraction expansion is often used to determine the inverse transforms, instead of evaluating (6.16) directly. Once the original rational transform $X(s)$ has been expanded into a linear combination of lower-order rational transforms, we can infer the ROC for each of these terms from the overall ROC for $X(s)$ and then find the corresponding inverse transform.

Example 6.10:

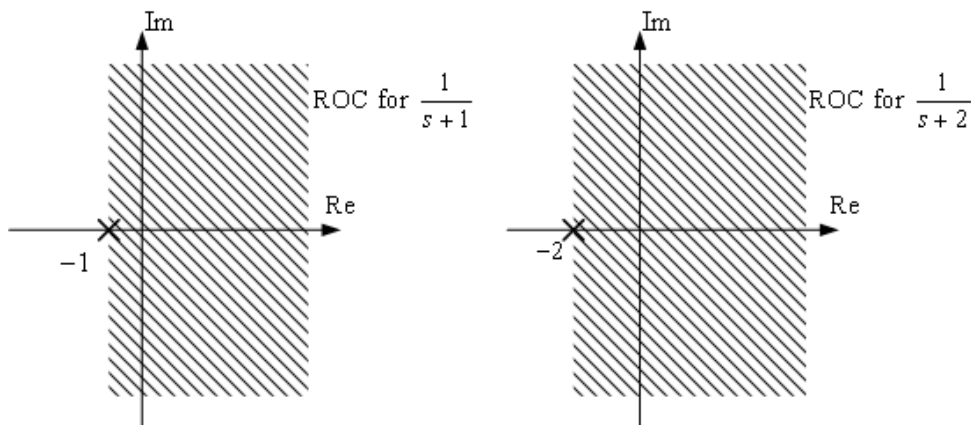
$$X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -1$$

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} = \frac{A}{s+1} + \frac{B}{s+2} = \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2}$$

$$A = (s+1)X(s)\Big|_{s=-1} = 1$$

$$B = (s+2)X(s)\Big|_{s=-2} = -1$$

Since the ROC for $X(s)$ is $\text{Re}\{s\} > -1$, the ROC for the individual terms in the partial fraction includes $\text{Re}\{s\} > -1$.



$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} e^{-t}u(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+1}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} > -1 \text{ (right-sided)} \\ e^{-2t}u(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+2}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} > -2 \text{ (right-sided)} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow (e^{-t} - e^{-2t})u(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} > -1$$

Example 6.11:

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -2 \text{ (left-sided)}$$

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

$$x(t) = (-e^{-t} + e^{-2t})u(-t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -2$$

$$\because e^{-bt}u(-t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{-1}{s-b}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < b$$

$$\therefore \begin{cases} e^{-t}u(-t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{-1}{s+1}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -1 \\ e^{-2t}u(-t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{-1}{s+2}, \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -2 \end{cases}$$

Example 6.12: $X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, -2 < \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -1$

$$x(t) = -e^{-t}u(-t) - e^{-2t}u(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, -2 < \operatorname{Re}\{s\} < -1$$

6-4 Properties of the Laplace Transform

1. Linearity

$$x_1(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X_1(s), \text{ with ROC} = R_1$$

$$x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X_2(s), \text{ with ROC} = R_2$$

$$\Rightarrow ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} aX_1(s) + bX_2(s) \text{ with ROC containing } R_1 \cap R_2 \quad (6.17)$$

Note: The ROC of the Laplace transform for the combined signal could be larger than $R_1 \cap R_2$.

Example 6.13: $X_1(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1$

$$X_2(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1$$

$$x(t) = x_1(t) - x_2(t)$$

$$X(s) = X_1(s) - X_2(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$

$$= \frac{s+1}{(s+1)(s+2)} = \frac{1}{s+2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -2 \text{ (larger than } \text{Re}\{s\} > -1)$$

In the combination of $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$, the pole at $s = -1$ is cancelled by a zero at $s = -1$. \Rightarrow “pole-zero cancellation” ■

2. Time shifting

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s), \text{ with ROC} = R$$

$$x(t-t_0) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} e^{-st_0} X(s), \text{ with ROC} = R$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t-t_0) e^{-st} dt = e^{-st_0} X(s) \right) \quad (6.18)$$

3. Shifting in the s -plane

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s), \text{ with ROC} = R$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} e^{s_0 t} x(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s-s_0), \text{ with ROC} = R + \text{Re}\{s_0\} \\ (\because \text{pole } s_p &\rightarrow s_p + s_0) \end{aligned} \quad (6.19)$$

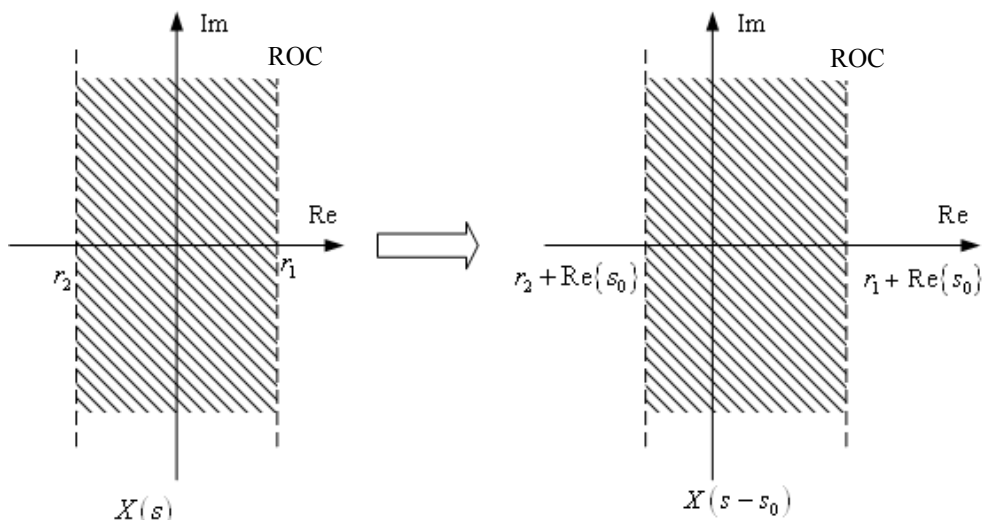


Figure 6.7 The effect on the ROC of shifting in the s -domain.

4. Time scaling

$$\begin{aligned}
 x(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s), \text{ with ROC} = R \\
 \Rightarrow x(at) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{|a|} X\left(\frac{s}{a}\right), \text{ with ROC} = aR \\
 &(\because \text{pole } s_p \rightarrow as_p)
 \end{aligned} \tag{6.20}$$

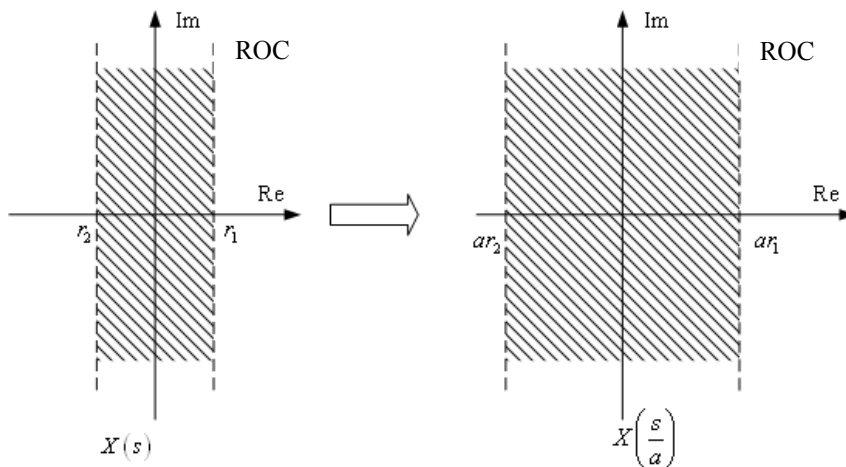


Figure 6.8 The effect on the ROC of time scaling.

$a > 0,$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}\{x(at)\} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(at)e^{-st} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t')e^{-\frac{s}{a}t'} \frac{1}{a} dt' \\
 &= \frac{1}{a} X\left(\frac{s}{a}\right) = \frac{1}{|a|} X\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$a < 0,$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}\{x(at)\} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(at)e^{-st} dt = \int_{\infty}^{-\infty} x(t')e^{-\frac{s}{a}t'} \frac{1}{a} dt' \\
 &= -\frac{1}{a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t')e^{-\frac{s}{a}t'} dt' = \frac{1}{|a|} X\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

5. Convolution property

$$x_1(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X_1(s), \text{ with ROC} = R_1$$

$$x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X_2(s), \text{ with ROC} = R_2$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) = x_1(t) * x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s) = X_1(s)X_2(s), \begin{array}{l} \text{with ROC} \\ \text{containing } R_1 \cap R_2 \end{array} \quad (6.21)$$

Note: The ROC of $X(s)$ may be larger than $R_1 \cap R_2$ if pole-zero cancellation occurs in the product.

Example 6.14:

$$X_1(s) = \frac{s+1}{s+2}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -2$$

$$X_2(s) = \frac{s+2}{s+1}, \text{ Re}\{s\} > -1$$

Then $X(s) = X_1(s)X_2(s) = 1$, with ROC being the entire s -plane. ■

6. Differentiation in the time domain

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s), \text{ with ROC} = R$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} sX(s), \text{ with ROC containing } R \quad (6.22)$$

$$\left[x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma-j\infty}^{\sigma+j\infty} X(s) e^{st} ds \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma-j\infty}^{\sigma+j\infty} sX(s) e^{st} ds \right]$$

$$\textbf{Example 6.15: } x(t) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} (e^{-3(t-2)} u(t-2))$$

$$e^{-3t} u(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+3}, \text{ with ROC } \text{Re}\{s\} > -3$$

$$e^{-3(t-2)} u(t-2) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+3} e^{-2s}, \text{ with ROC } \text{Re}\{s\} > -3$$

$$x(t) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} (e^{-3(t-2)} u(t-2)) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s) = \frac{s^2}{s+3} e^{-2s}, \text{ with ROC } \text{Re}\{s\} > -3$$

■

Example 6.16: $X(s) = \frac{2s^3 - 9s^2 + 4s + 10}{s^2 - 3s - 4}$, with $\text{Re}\{s\} < -1$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{2s-3}{s^2-3s-4} \sqrt{2s^3-9s^2+4s+10} \\ & \frac{2s^3-6s^2-8s}{-3s^2+12s+10} \\ & \frac{-3s^2+9s+12}{3s-2} \\ X(s) &= 2s-3 + \frac{1}{s+1} + \frac{2}{s-4}, \text{ with } \text{Re}\{s\} < -1 \\ x(t) &= 2\delta^{(1)}(t) - 3\delta(t) - e^{-t}u(-t) - 2e^{4t}u(-t) \end{aligned}$$

Note: The ROC of $sX(s)$ includes the ROC of $X(s)$ and may be larger if $X(s)$ has a first order pole at $s = 0$ which is cancelled by the multiplication by s . ■

7. Differentiation in the s -domain

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s), \text{ with ROC} = R \\ \Rightarrow -tx(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{dX(s)}{ds}, \text{ with ROC} = R \end{aligned} \quad (6.23)$$

$$\left[\begin{aligned} X(s) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt \\ \frac{dX(s)}{ds} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [-tx(t)] e^{-st} dt \end{aligned} \right]$$

8. Integration in the time domain

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s), \text{ with ROC} = R \\ \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X(s)/s, \text{ with ROC containing } R \cap \{\text{Re}\{s\} > 0\} \end{aligned} \quad (6.24)$$

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau &= u(t) * x(t) \\ u(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} s^{-1}, \text{ with ROC} = \text{Re}\{s\} > 0 \\ \left(\text{From } e^{-at}u(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+a}, \text{ with ROC} = \text{Re}\{s\} > -a \right) \\ \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s} X(s), \text{ with ROC containing } R \cap \{\text{Re}\{s\} > 0\} \end{aligned}$$

9. The initial and final value theorems

Consider a signal $x(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$ and $x(t)$ contains no impulses or higher-order singularities at the origin. Then

$$x(0^+) = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} sX(s) \dots \dots \dots \text{The Initial Value Theorem} \tag{6.25}$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) \dots \dots \dots \text{The Final Value Theorem} \tag{6.26}$$

Proof:

Expanding $x(t)$ as a Taylor series at $t = 0^+$, we obtain

$$x(t) = \left[x(0^+) + x^{(1)}(0^+)t + \dots + x^{(n)}(0^+) \frac{t^n}{n!} + \dots \right] u(t)$$

where $x^{(n)}(0^+)$ denotes the n th derivative of $x(t)$ evaluated at $t = 0^+$.

$$\begin{aligned} u(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s} \\ tu(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s^2} \\ &\vdots \\ \frac{t^n}{n!} u(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s^{n+1}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L}\{x(t)\} = \frac{1}{s} x(0^+) + \frac{1}{s^2} x^{(1)}(0^+) + \dots + \frac{1}{s^n} x^{(n)}(0^+) + \dots = X(s)$$

$$\Rightarrow sX(s) = x(0^+) + \frac{1}{s} x^{(1)}(0^+) + \dots + \frac{1}{s^{n-1}} x^{(n)}(0^+) + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} sX(s) = x(0^+) \dots \dots \dots \text{The Initial Value Theorem}$$

Let us consider the limit of the integral $\int_{0^+}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt$ as s approach 0. Then we have

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \int_{0^+}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt = \int_{0^+}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} dt = x(t) \Big|_{0^+}^{\infty} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) - x(0^+).$$

Also, it can be checked that the following equations hold:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \int_{0^+}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \left[x(t) e^{-st} \right]_{0^+}^{\infty} - \int_{0^+}^{\infty} x(t) \frac{de^{-st}}{dt} dt \right\} \\ &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \left[x(t) e^{-st} \right]_{0^+}^{\infty} - \int_{0^+}^{\infty} x(t) (-s) e^{-st} dt \right\} \\ &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \left[-x(0^+) + sX(s) \right] = -x(0^+) + \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) \dots \dots \dots \text{The Final Value Theorem} \quad \blacksquare$$

6-5 Analysis and Characterization of LTI Systems Using the Laplace Transform

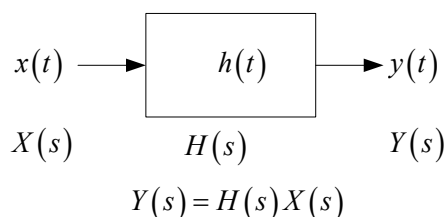


Figure 6.8 An LTI system with input $x(t)$, output $y(t)$, and impulse response $h(t)$.

$H(s)$: the system function or transfer function

With $s = j\omega$, $H(j\omega)$ is called the frequency response of the LTI system.

For a causal system, $h(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$ (Fig. 6.9).

$\Rightarrow h(t)$ is a right-sided signal.

\Rightarrow The ROC is the entire region in the s -plane to the right of the rightmost pole.

Note:

- Anticausal system $h(t)$
 - \Rightarrow Its ROC is the region in the s -plane to the left of the leftmost pole.
- An ROC to the right of the rightmost pole does not guarantee that the system is causal, only that the impulse response is right-sided.
- The Fourier transform of the impulse response for a stable LTI system exists.
 - \Rightarrow For a stable system, the ROC of $H(s)$ must include the $j\omega$ -axis (Fig. 6.10).
- For a causal and stable LTI system with a rational system function, all poles must lie in the left half of the s -plane.

causal \Rightarrow The ROC must be to the right of the rightmost pole.

stable \Rightarrow The ROC must include the $j\omega$ -axis.

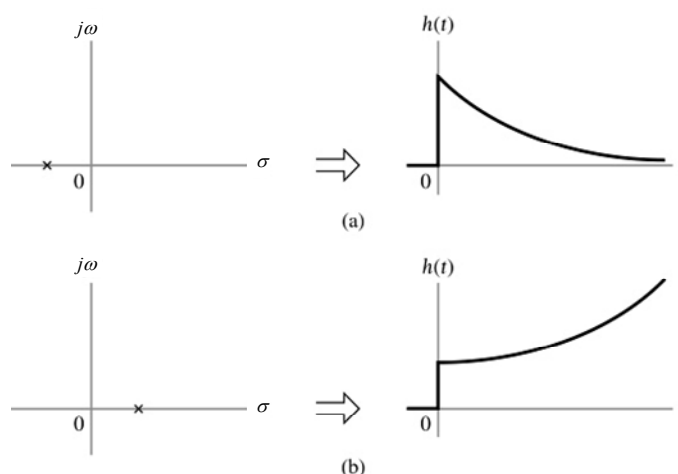


Figure 6.9 The relationship between the locations of poles and the impulse response in a causal system. (a) A pole in the left half of the s -plane corresponds to an exponentially decaying impulse response. (b) A pole in the right half of the s -plane corresponds to an exponentially increasing impulse response; the system is unstable in this case.

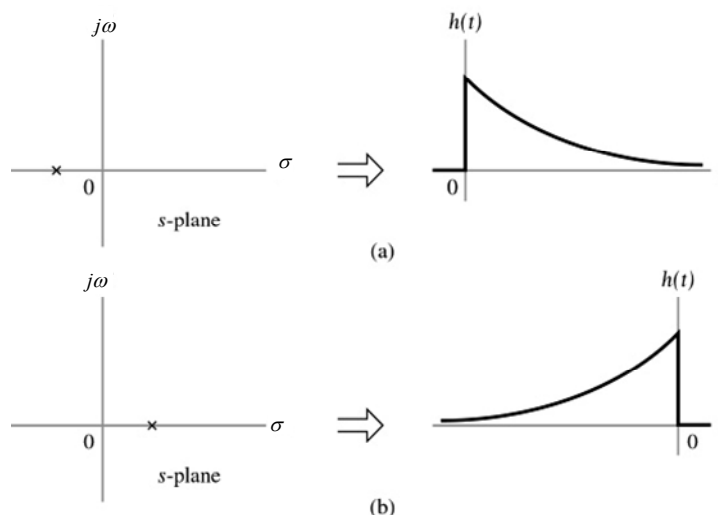


Figure 6.10 The relationship between the locations of poles and the impulse response in a stable system. (a) A pole in the left half of the s -plane corresponds to a right-sided impulse response. (b) A pole in the right half of the s -plane corresponds to an left-sided impulse response; the system is noncausal in this case.

Example 6.17: $h(t) = e^{-t}u(t) \Rightarrow H(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -1$

\Rightarrow causal and stable



Example 6.18: $H(s) = \frac{e^s}{s+1}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -1 \Rightarrow e^{-t}u(t) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s+1}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -1$

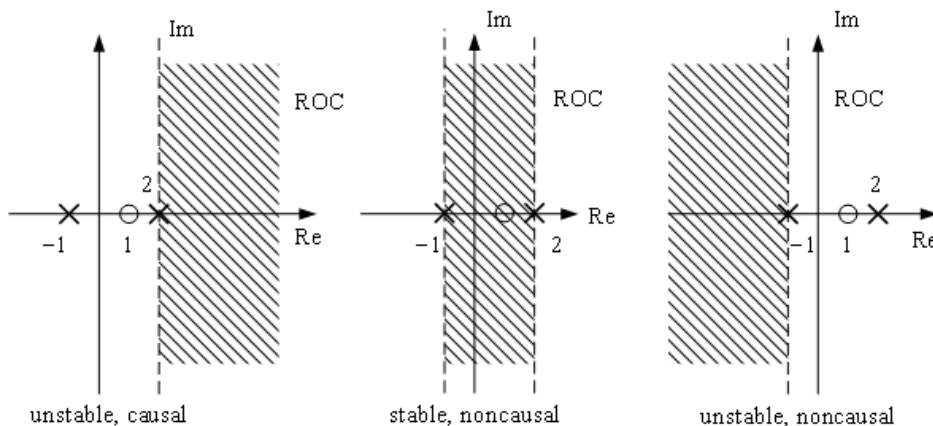
$\Rightarrow e^{-(t+1)}u(t+1) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{e^s}{s+1}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -1$

$\Rightarrow h(t) = e^{-(t+1)}u(t+1),$ zero for $t < -1$ but not for $t < 0$

\Rightarrow The system is stable but not causal.



Example 6.19: Possible ROCs of $H(s) = \frac{s-1}{(s+1)(s-2)}$:



Example 6.20: Determine the impulse response with stability and causality constraints for the following system function:

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

If the system is stable, then the pole at $s = -3$ contributes a right-sided term to the impulse response, while the pole at $s = 2$ contributes a left-sided term. Accordingly, the corresponding impulse response is

$$h(t) = 2e^{-3t}u(t) - e^{2t}u(-t).$$

If the system is causal, then both poles must contribute right-sided terms to the impulse response and the corresponding impulse response is

$$h(t) = 2e^{-3t}u(t) + e^{2t}u(t). \quad \blacksquare$$

1. System characterized by linear constant-coefficient differential equations

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^N a_k \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k} &= \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \frac{d^k x(t)}{dt^k} \\ \Downarrow \mathcal{L} & \qquad \qquad \qquad \Downarrow \mathcal{L} \\ \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^N a_k s^k \right\} Y(s) &= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^M b_k s^k \right\} X(s) \\ \Rightarrow H(s) &= \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{\left\{ \sum_{k=0}^M b_k s^k \right\}}{\left\{ \sum_{k=0}^N a_k s^k \right\}} \end{aligned}$$

The system function has zeros and poles respectively at the solutions of

$$\sum_{k=0}^M b_k s^k = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^N a_k s^k = 0.$$

Note: With additional information such as stability or causality of the system, the ROC can be inferred and the corresponding impulse response can be obtained.

Example 6.21: Determine the impulse response of the system described by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) &= x(t). \\ \Rightarrow sY(s) + 3Y(s) &= X(s) \Rightarrow H(s) = \frac{1}{s+3} \end{aligned}$$

If the system is causal, the ROC is $\text{Re}\{s\} > -3$, and the corresponding impulse response is

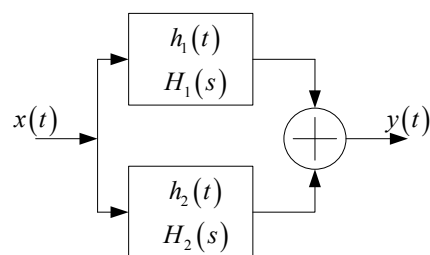
$$h(t) = e^{-3t}u(t).$$

If the system is noncausal, then the ROC is $\text{Re}\{s\} < -3$, and the corresponding impulse response is

$$h(t) = -e^{-3t}u(-t). \quad \blacksquare$$

2. System function for interconnections of LTI systems

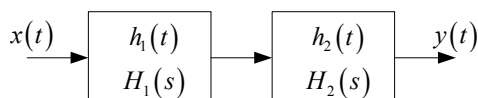
(1) Parallel interconnection



$$h(t) = h_1(t) + h_2(t) \Rightarrow H(s) = H_1(s) + H_2(s)$$

Figure 6.11 Parallel interconnection of two LTI systems.

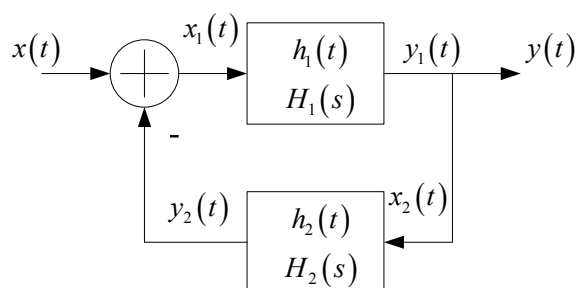
(2) Cascade interconnection



$$h(t) = h_1(t) * h_2(t) \Rightarrow H(s) = H_1(s)H_2(s)$$

Figure 6.12 Cascade interconnection of two LTI systems.

(3) Feedback interconnection

**Figure 6.13** Feedback interconnection of two LTI systems.

$$\begin{aligned} Y_2(s) &= H_2(s)X_2(s) = H_2(s)Y_1(s) = H_2(s)Y(s) \\ Y(s) &= H_1(s)X_1(s) = H_1(s)[X(s) - Y_2(s)] \\ &= H_1(s)X(s) - H_1(s)H_2(s)Y(s) \\ \Rightarrow \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} &= H(s) = \frac{H_1(s)}{1 + H_1(s)H_2(s)} \end{aligned}$$

3. Design of a Butterworth filter with frequency response $B(j\omega)$

$$|B(j\omega)|^2 = \frac{1}{1+(\omega/\omega_c)^{2N}} = \frac{1}{1+(j\omega/j\omega_c)^{2N}} \tag{6.27}$$

$$|B(j\omega)|^2 = B(j\omega)B^*(j\omega) \tag{6.28}$$

Restricting the impulse response of the Butterworth filter to be real, we have

$$B^*(j\omega) = B(-j\omega) \tag{6.29}$$

$$B(j\omega)B(-j\omega) = 1/\left[1+(j\omega/j\omega_c)^{2N}\right] \tag{6.30}$$

$$\therefore B(s)\Big|_{s=j\omega} = B(j\omega) \tag{6.31}$$

$$\therefore B(s)B(-s) = 1/\left[1+(s/j\omega_c)^{2N}\right] \tag{6.32}$$

The poles of $B(s)B(-s)$ are the solutions of

$$1+(s/j\omega_c)^{2N} = 0 \tag{6.33}$$

$$\Rightarrow s_p = (-1)^{1/2N} (j\omega_c) \tag{6.34}$$

$$\Rightarrow |s_p| = \omega_c, \angle s_p = \frac{\pi(2k+1)}{2N} + \frac{\pi}{2}, k \text{ is an integer} \tag{6.35}$$

$$\Rightarrow s_p = \omega_c e^{j\left[\frac{\pi(2k+1)}{2N} + \frac{\pi}{2}\right]} \tag{6.36}$$

The pole locations of $B(s)B(-s)$ for $N = 1, 2, 3,$ and 6 are shown as follows:

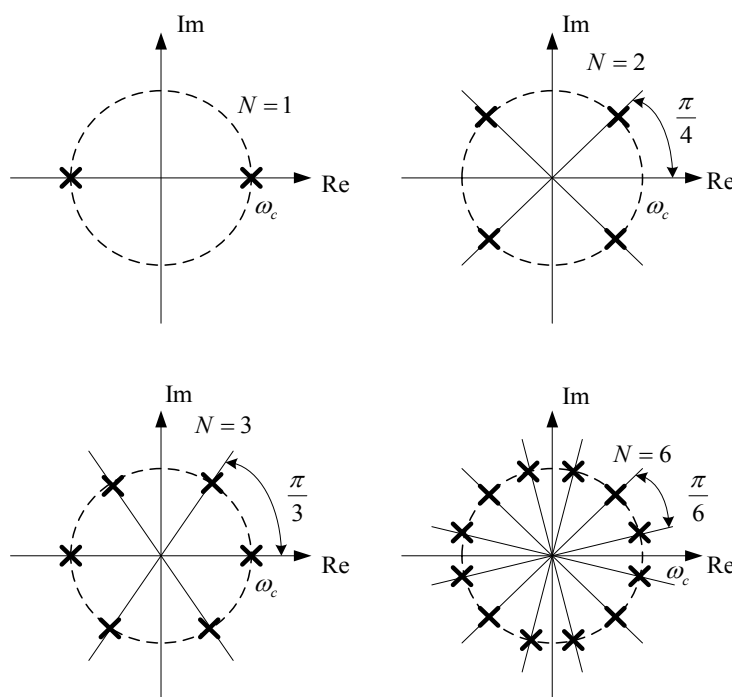


Figure 6.14 The pole locations of $B(s)B(-s)$ for $N = 1, 2, 3,$ and 6 .

- (1) The poles of $B(s)B(-s)$ occurs in pairs, so that if there is a pole at $s = s_p$, then there is also a pole at $s = -s_p$.
- (2) To construct $B(s)$, we choose one pole from each pair of poles.
- (3) If we restrict the system to be stable and causal, then the poles of $B(s)$ should be in the left-half plane.
- (4) $B^2(s)|_{s=0} = 1$

$$N = 1: B(s) = \frac{\omega_c}{s + \omega_c} \quad (6.37)$$

$$N = 2: B(s) = \frac{\omega_c^2}{\left(s + \omega_c e^{j\frac{\pi}{4}}\right)\left(s + \omega_c e^{-j\frac{\pi}{4}}\right)} = \frac{\omega_c^2}{s^2 + \sqrt{2}\omega_c s + \omega_c^2} \quad (6.38)$$

$$N = 3: B(s) = \frac{\omega_c^3}{(s + \omega_c)\left(s + \omega_c e^{j\frac{\pi}{3}}\right)\left(s + \omega_c e^{-j\frac{\pi}{3}}\right)} = \frac{\omega_c^3}{s^3 + 2\omega_c s^2 + 2\omega_c^2 s + \omega_c^3} \quad (6.39)$$

From these equations, we have

$$\frac{\omega_c}{s + \omega_c} = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} \Rightarrow \omega_c X(s) = sY(s) + \omega_c Y(s) \quad (6.40)$$

$$\frac{\omega_c^2}{s^2 + \sqrt{2}\omega_c s + \omega_c^2} = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} \Rightarrow \omega_c^2 X(s) = s^2 Y(s) + \sqrt{2}\omega_c s Y(s) + \omega_c^2 Y(s) \quad (6.41)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\omega_c^3}{s^3 + 2\omega_c s^2 + 2\omega_c^2 s + \omega_c^3} &= \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} \\ \Rightarrow \omega_c^3 X(s) &= s^3 Y(s) + 2\omega_c s^2 Y(s) + 2\omega_c^2 s Y(s) + \omega_c^3 Y(s) \end{aligned} \quad (6.42)$$

Accordingly, the corresponding differential equations for these three cases are as follows:

$$N = 1: \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + \omega_c y(t) = \omega_c x(t) \quad (6.43)$$

$$N = 2: \frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} + \sqrt{2}\omega_c \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + \omega_c^2 y(t) = \omega_c^2 x(t) \quad (6.44)$$

$$N = 3: \frac{d^3 y(t)}{dt^3} + 2\omega_c \frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} + 2\omega_c^2 \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + \omega_c^3 y(t) = \omega_c^3 x(t) \quad (6.45)$$

6-6 The Unilateral Laplace Transform

1. The unilateral Laplace transform of $x(t)$ is defined as

$$\mathcal{X}(s) \triangleq \int_0^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt. \quad (6.46)$$

It is different from the bilateral Laplace transform given by

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

When $x(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$, the unilateral and bilateral Laplace transforms are identical.

Note: The ROC for the unilateral Laplace transform is always a right-half plane, since it can be regarded as the bilateral Laplace transform of a causal signal.

Example 6.22:

$$x(t) = \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} e^{-at} u(t)$$

$$\mathcal{X}(s) = \frac{1}{(s+a)^n}, \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -a$$

Example 6.23:

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

$$X(s) = \frac{e^s}{s+a}, \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -a$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{X}(s) &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-a(t+1)} u(t+1) e^{-st} dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-a} e^{-(s+a)t} dt = e^{-a} \int_0^{\infty} \{e^{-at} u(t)\} e^{-st} dt \\ &= \frac{e^{-a}}{s+a}, \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -a \end{aligned}$$

The unilateral and bilateral Laplace transforms are distinctly different. ■

2. Most of the properties of the unilateral Laplace transform are the same as for the bilateral Laplace transform.
3. The differentiation property of the unilateral Laplace transform

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt = x(t) e^{-st} \Big|_0^{\infty} + s \int_0^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt = s\mathcal{X}(s) - x(0^-) \quad (6.47)$$

(Integration by parts)

where $\mathcal{X}(s)$ is the unilateral Laplace transform of $x(t)$.

Similarly

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{0^-}^{\infty} \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} e^{-st} dt &= s \int_{0^-}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt - x^{(1)}(0^-) \\ &= s \left[s\mathcal{X}(s) - x(0^-) \right] - x^{(1)}(0^-) \\ &= s^2 \mathcal{X}(s) - sx(0^-) - x^{(1)}(0^-). \end{aligned} \quad (6.48)$$

The general form for the differentiation property is

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n} x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_u} \begin{cases} s^n \mathcal{X}(s) - \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}} x(t) \Big|_{t=0^-} & -s \frac{d^{n-2}}{dt^{n-2}} x(t) \Big|_{t=0^-} \\ \dots - s^{n-2} \frac{d}{dt} x(t) \Big|_{t=0^-} & -s^{n-1} x(0^-) \end{cases} \quad (6.49)$$

where the subscript u in \mathcal{L}_u denotes the unilateral transform.

Example 6.24: $x(t) = e^{at} u(t)$

Apply the product rule for differentiation to obtain the derivative of $x(t)$, $t > 0^-$:

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) = \frac{d}{dt} e^{at} u(t) = ae^{at} u(t) + \delta(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{a}{s-a} + 1 = \frac{s}{s-a}$$

Using Eq. (6.50), we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_u} s \frac{1}{s-a} + 0 = \frac{s}{s-a}.$$

The results are identical, since $x(t)$ is a causal signal. ■

4. The integration property of the unilateral Laplace transform

$$\int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_u} \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{0^-} x(\tau) d\tau}{s} + \frac{\mathcal{X}(s)}{s} \quad (6.50)$$

Proof: Let $y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau$. Then

$$\frac{d}{dt} y(t) = x(t)$$

$$s\mathcal{Y}(s) - y(0^-) = \mathcal{X}(s)$$

$$\mathcal{Y}(s) = \frac{\mathcal{X}(s)}{s} + \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{0^-} x(\tau) d\tau}{s}$$

■

5. A primary use of the unilateral Laplace transform is in obtaining the solution of linear constant-coefficient differential equations with nonzero initial conditions.

Example 6.25: $\frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2} + 3\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 2y(t) = x(t), y(0^-) = 3, \frac{dy(0^-)}{dt} = -5$

Let $x(t) = 2u(t)$. Then we obtain

$$s^2\mathcal{Y}(s) - sy(0^-) - y^{(1)}(0^-) + 3s\mathcal{Y}(s) - 3y(0^-) + 2\mathcal{Y}(s) = \frac{2}{s}$$

$$\mathcal{Y}(s) = \frac{3s + 4}{(s + 1)(s + 2)} + \frac{2}{s(s + 1)(s + 2)}$$

where $\mathcal{Y}(s)$ is the unilateral Laplace transform of $y(t)$. Thus, we have

$$\mathcal{Y}(s) = \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{s + 1} + \frac{3}{s + 2} \Rightarrow y(t) = [1 - e^{-t} + 3e^{-2t}]u(t).$$

■

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