

# Module 1-2: LTI Systems

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# LTI Definition

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- System is linear (studied thoroughly in 16AB):
  
- System is time invariant:
  - There is no “clock” or time reference
  - The transfer function is not a function of time
  - It does not matter when you apply the input. The transfer function is going to be the same ...

# Linear Systems

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- Continuous time linear systems have a lot in common with finite dimensional linear systems we studied in 16AB:
  - Linearity:
  - Basis Vectors  $\rightarrow$  basis functions:
  - Superposition:
  - Matrix Representation  $\rightarrow$  Integral representation:

# Linear Systems (cont)

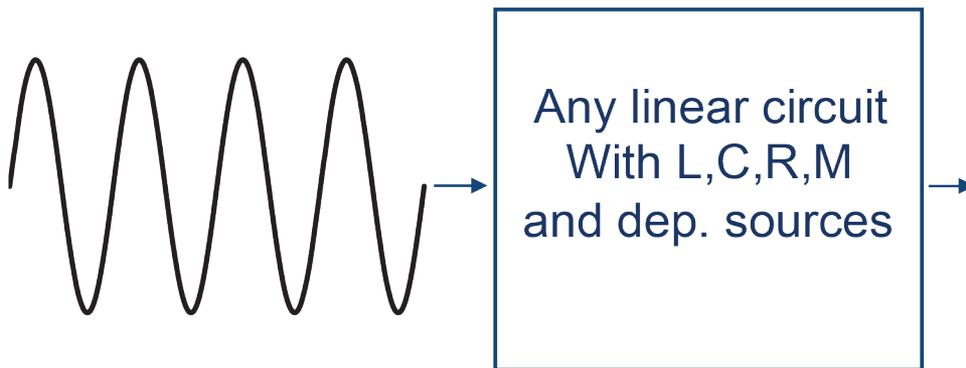
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- Eigenvectors  $\rightarrow$  eigenfunctions
- Orthonormal basis
- Eigenfunction expansion
- Operators acting on eigenfunction expansion

# LTI Systems

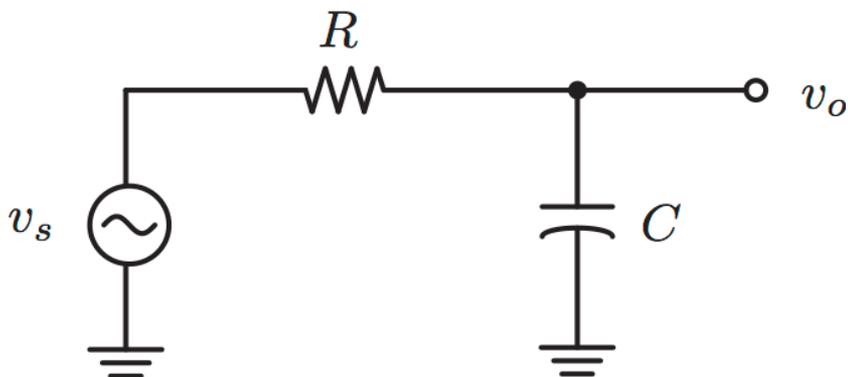
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- Since most periodic (non-periodic) signals can be decomposed into a summation (integration) of sinusoids via Fourier Series (Transform), the response of a LTI system to virtually any input is characterized by the frequency response of the system:



# Example: Low Pass Filter (LPF)

- Input signal:  $v_s(t) = V_s \cos(\omega t)$
  - We know that:  $v_o(t) = \underbrace{K \cdot V_s}_{V_0} \cos(\omega t + \phi)$
- Phase shift  
Amp shift



$$v_o(t) = v_s(t) - i(t)R$$

$$i(t) = C \frac{dv_o}{dt}$$

$$v_o(t) = v_s(t) - RC \frac{dv_o}{dt}$$

$$v_s(t) = v_o(t) + \tau \frac{dv_o}{dt}$$

# LPF the “hard way” (cont.)

- Plug the known form of the output into the equation and see if it can satisfy KVL and KCL

$$V_s \cos \omega t = V_0 \cos(\omega t + \phi) - \tau \omega V_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\cos(x + y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y$$

$$\sin(x + y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y$$

$$V_s \cos \omega t = V_0 \cos \omega t (\cos \phi - \tau \omega \sin \phi) - V_0 \sin \omega t (\sin \phi + \tau \omega \cos \phi)$$

- Since sine and cosine are linearly independent functions:

$$a_1 \sin \omega t + a_2 \cos \omega t = 0$$

$$\text{IFF } a_1 \equiv a_2 \equiv 0$$

# LPF: Solving for response...

- Applying linear independence

$$\begin{aligned} -V_0 \sin \phi - V_0 \tau \omega \cos \phi &= 0 \\ V_0 \cos \phi - V_0 \tau \omega \sin \phi - V_s &= 0 \\ \tan \phi &= -\tau \omega \end{aligned}$$

Phase Response:

$$\phi = -\tan^{-1} \tau \omega$$

$$V_0 (\cos \phi - \tau \omega \sin \phi) = V_s$$

$$V_0 \cos \phi (1 - \tau \omega \tan \phi) = V_s$$

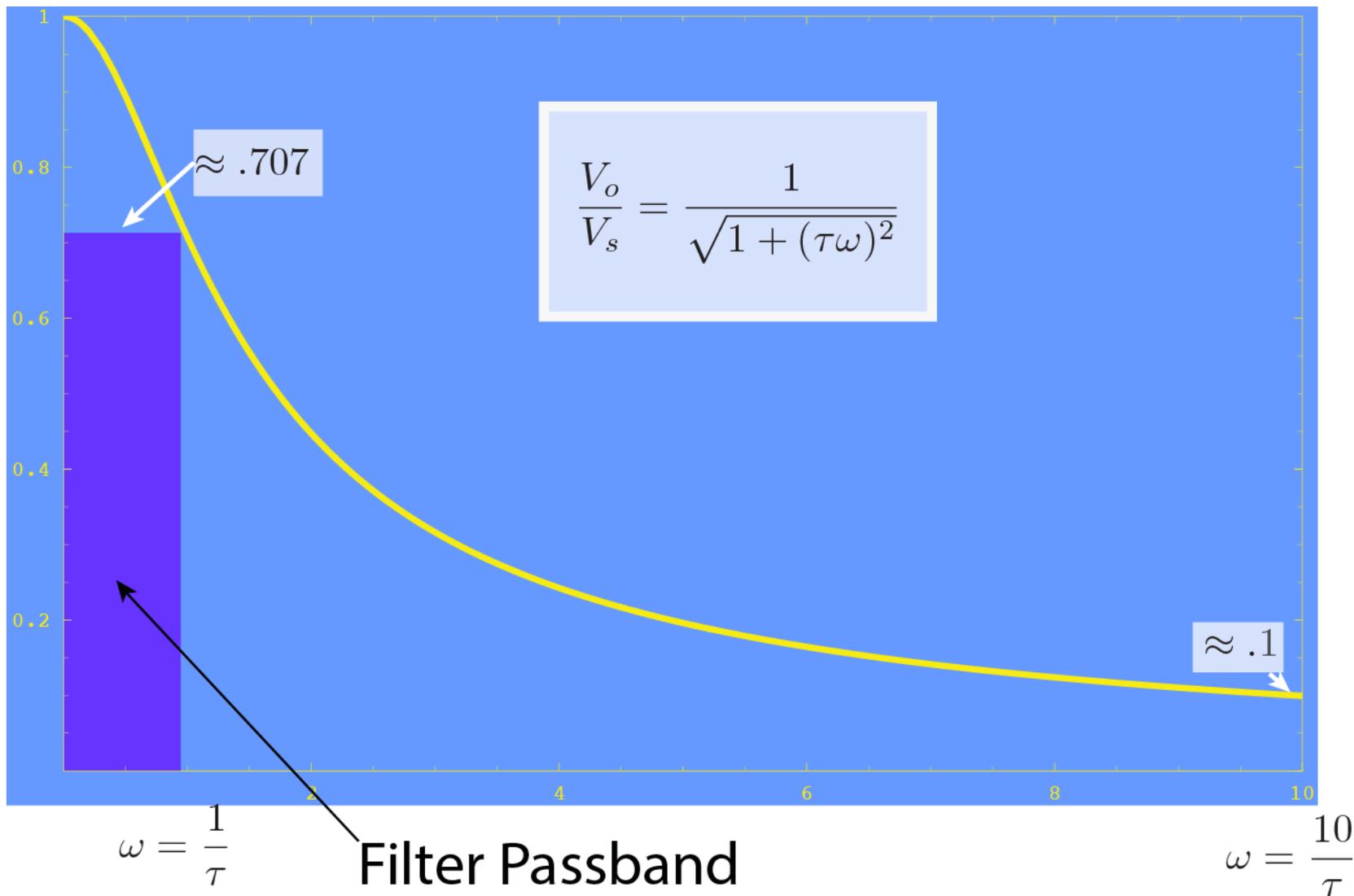
$$V_0 \cos \phi (1 + (\tau \omega)^2) = V_s$$

$$V_0 (1 + (\tau \omega)^2)^{1/2} = V_s$$

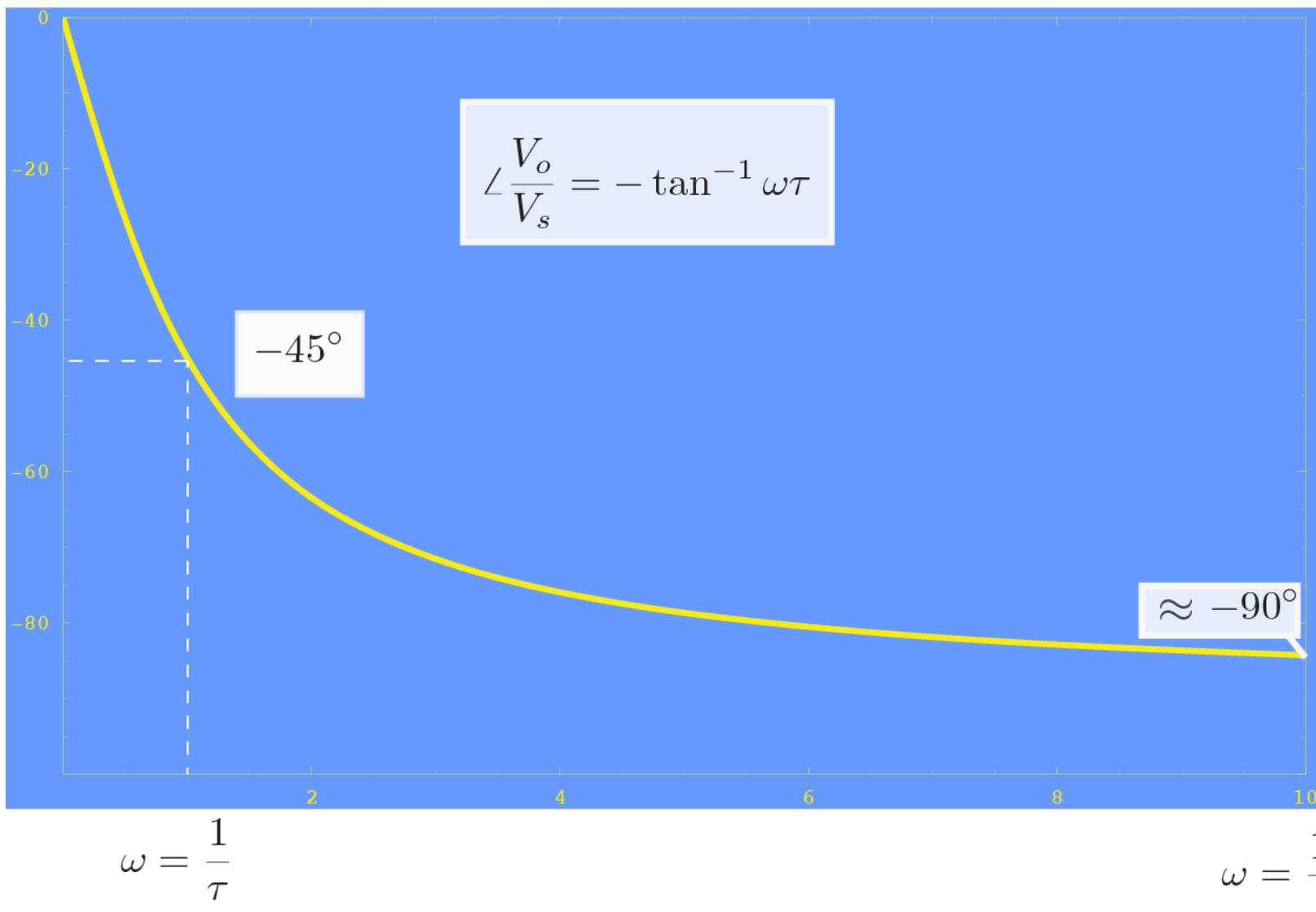
Amplitude Response:

$$\frac{V_0}{V_s} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (\tau \omega)^2}}$$

# LPF Magnitude Response

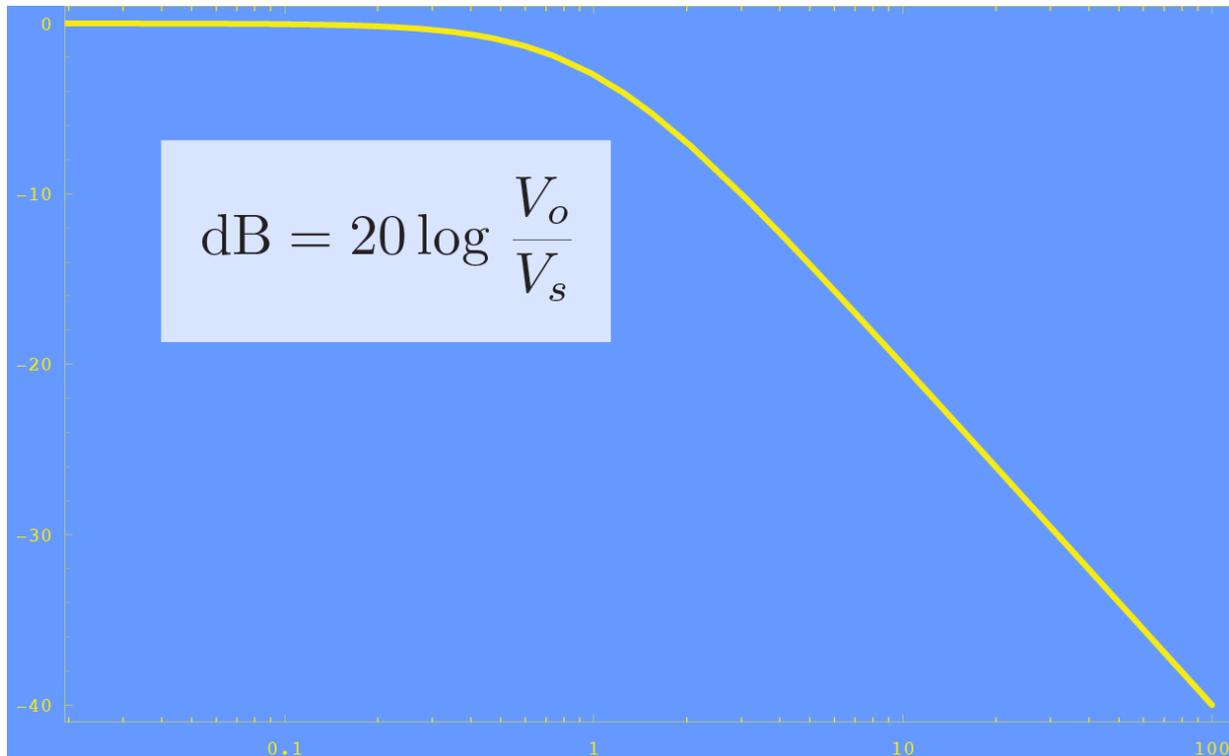


# LPF Phase Response



# dB: Honor the inventor of the phone...

- The LPF response quickly decays to zero
- We can expand range by taking the log of the magnitude response
  - dB = deciBel (deci = 10)



# Why 20? Power!

- Why multiply log by “20” rather than “10”?
- Power is proportional to voltage squared:

$$dB = 10 \log \left( \frac{V_0}{V_s} \right)^2 = 20 \log \left( \frac{V_0}{V_s} \right)$$

- At breakpoint:  $\omega = 1/\tau \rightarrow \left( \frac{V_0}{V_s} \right)_{dB} = -3 \text{ dB}$

$$\omega = 100/\tau \rightarrow \left( \frac{V_0}{V_s} \right)_{dB} = -40 \text{ dB}$$

$$\omega = 1000/\tau \rightarrow \left( \frac{V_0}{V_s} \right)_{dB} = -60 \text{ dB}$$

- Observe: slope of signal attenuation is 20 dB/decade in frequency

# Why introduce complex numbers?

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- They actually make things easier
- One insightful derivation of  $e^{ix}$
- Consider a second order homogeneous DE

$$y'' + y = 0$$

$$y = \begin{cases} \sin x \\ \cos x \end{cases}$$

- Since sine and cosine are linearly independent, any solution is a linear combination of the “fundamental” solutions

# Insight into Complex Exponential

- But note that  $e^{ix}$  is also a solution!
- That means:  $e^{ix} = a_1 \sin x + a_2 \cos x$
- To find the constants of prop, take derivative of this equation:

$$i e^{ix} = -a_2 \sin x + a_1 \cos x$$

- Now solve for the constants using both equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sin x & \cos x \\ \cos x & -\sin x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{ix} \\ i e^{ix} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = b \quad \det A = -1 \neq 0$$

# Complex Exponential

- Euler's Theorem says that

$$e^{jx} = \cos x + j \sin x$$

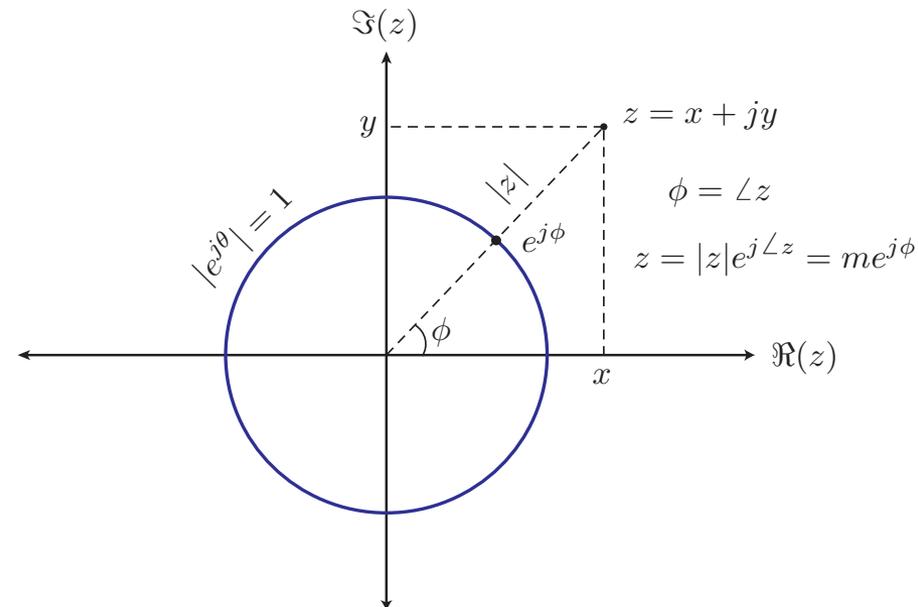
- This can be derived by expanding each term in a power series.
- If take the magnitude of this quantity, it's unity

$$|e^{jx}| = \sqrt{\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x} = 1$$

- That means that  $e^{j\phi}$  is a point on the unit circle at an angle of  $\phi$  from the  $x$ -axis.

Any complex number  $z$ , expressed as have a real and imaginary part  $z = x + jy$ , can also be interpreted as having a magnitude and a phase. The magnitude  $|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  and the phase  $\phi = \angle z = \tan^{-1} y/x$  can be combined using the complex exponential

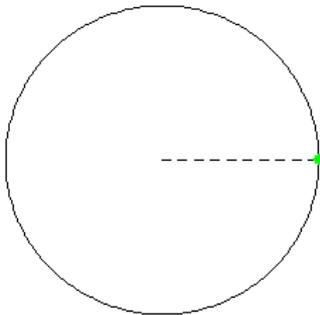
$$x + jy = |z|e^{j\phi}$$



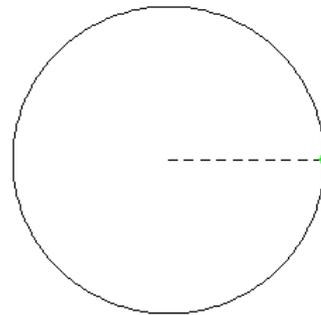
# The Rotating Complex Exponential

- So the complex exponential is nothing but a point tracing out a unit circle on the complex plane:

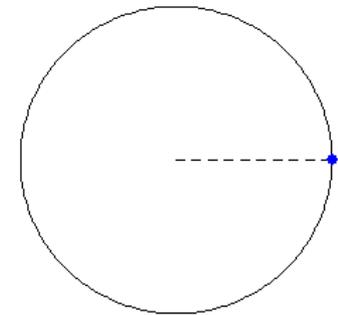
$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$$



$$e^{i\omega t}$$



$$e^{-i\omega t}$$



$$\frac{e^{i\omega t} + e^{-i\omega t}}{2}$$

# Magic: Turn Diff Eq into Algebraic Eq

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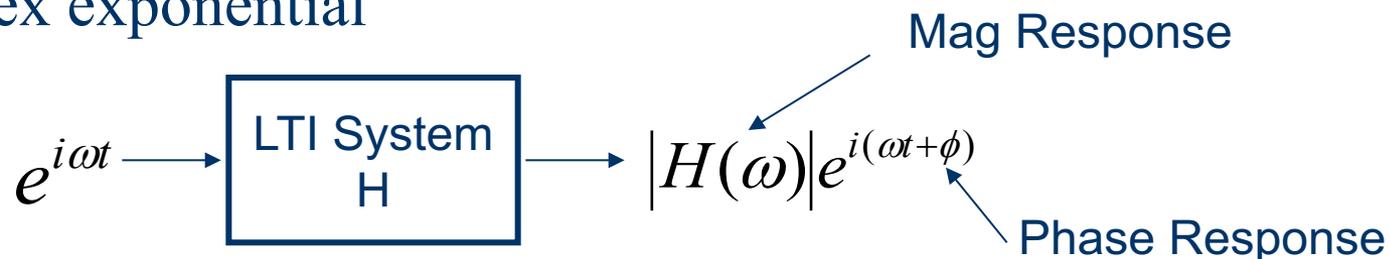
- Integration and differentiation are trivial with complex numbers:

$$\frac{d}{dt} e^{i\omega t} = i\omega e^{i\omega t} \qquad \int e^{i\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{1}{i\omega} e^{i\omega t}$$

- Any ODE is now trivial algebraic manipulations ...  
in fact, we'll show that you don't even need to directly derive the ODE by using phasors
- The key is to observe that the current/voltage relation for any element can be derived for complex exponential excitation

# Complex Exponential is Powerful

- To find steady state response we can excite the system with a complex exponential



- At any frequency, the system response is characterized by a single complex number  $H$ :

$$|H(\omega)| \quad \phi = \angle H(\omega)$$

- This is not surprising since a sinusoid is a sum of complex exponentials (and because of linearity!)

$$\sin \omega t = \frac{e^{i\omega t} - e^{-i\omega t}}{2i} \quad \cos \omega t = \frac{e^{i\omega t} + e^{-i\omega t}}{2}$$

- From this perspective, the complex exponential is even more fundamental

# LPF Example: The “soft way”

- Let's excite the system with a complex exp:

$$v_s(t) = v_o(t) + \tau \frac{dv_o}{dt}$$

$$v_s(t) = V_s e^{j\omega t}$$

$$v_o(t) = |V_o| e^{j(\omega t + \phi)} = V_o e^{j\omega t}$$

use  $j$  to avoid confusion

real                      complex

$$V_s e^{j\omega t} = V_o e^{j\omega t} + \tau \cdot j\omega \cdot V_o e^{j\omega t}$$

$$V_s = V_o (1 + j\omega \cdot \tau)$$

$$\frac{V_o}{V_s} = \frac{1}{(1 + j\omega \cdot \tau)}$$

**Easy!!!**

# Magnitude and Phase Response

- The system is characterized by the complex function

$$H(\omega) = \frac{V_0}{V_s} = \frac{1}{(1 + j\omega \cdot \tau)}$$

- The magnitude and phase response match our previous calculation:

$$|H(\omega)| = \left| \frac{V_0}{V_s} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \quad \checkmark$$

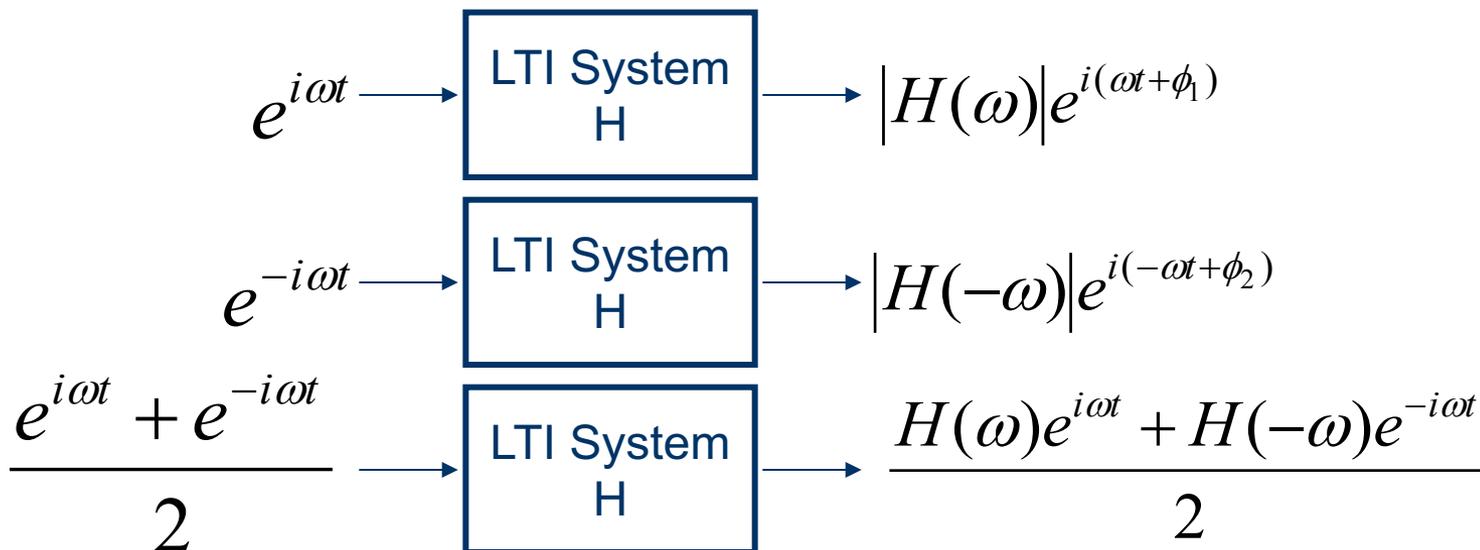
$$\angle H(\omega) = -\tan^{-1} \omega\tau \quad \checkmark$$

# Why did it work?

- Again, the system is linear:

$$y = \mathbf{L}(x_1 + x_2) = \mathbf{L}(x_1) + \mathbf{L}(x_2)$$

- To find the response to a sinusoid, we can find the response to  $e^{i\omega t}$  and  $e^{-i\omega t}$  and sum the results:



# (cont.)

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- Since the input is real, the output has to be real:

$$y(t) = \frac{H(\omega)e^{i\omega t} + H(-\omega)e^{-i\omega t}}{2}$$

- That means the second term is the conjugate of the first:

$$|H(-\omega)| = |H(\omega)| \quad (\text{even function})$$

$$\angle H(-\omega) = -\angle H(\omega) = -\phi \quad (\text{odd function})$$

- Therefore the output is:

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \frac{|H(\omega)|}{2} \left( e^{i(\omega t + \phi)} + e^{-i(\omega t + \phi)} \right) \\ &= |H(\omega)| \cos(\omega t + \phi) \end{aligned}$$



# “Proof” for Linear Systems

- For an arbitrary linear circuit ( $L, C, R, M$ , and dependent sources), decompose it into linear sub-operators, like multiplication by constants, time derivatives, or integrals:

$$y = \mathbf{L}(x) = ax + b_1 \frac{d}{dt} x + b_2 \frac{d^2}{dt^2} x + \dots + \int x + \iint x + \iiint x + \dots$$

- For a complex exponential input  $x$  this simplifies to:

$$y = \mathbf{L}(e^{j\omega t}) = ae^{j\omega t} + b_1 \frac{d}{dt} e^{j\omega t} + b_2 \frac{d^2}{dt^2} e^{j\omega t} + \dots + c_1 \int e^{j\omega t} + c_2 \iint e^{j\omega t} + \dots$$

$$y = ae^{j\omega t} + b_1 j\omega e^{j\omega t} + b_2 (j\omega)^2 e^{j\omega t} + \dots + c_1 \frac{e^{j\omega t}}{j\omega} + c_2 \frac{e^{j\omega t}}{(j\omega)^2} + \dots$$

$$y = Hx = e^{j\omega t} \left( a + b_1 j\omega + b_2 (j\omega)^2 + \dots + \frac{c_1}{j\omega} + \frac{c_2}{(j\omega)^2} + \dots \right)$$

# “Proof” (cont.)

- Notice that the output is also a complex exp times a complex number:

$$y = Hx = e^{j\omega t} \left( a + b_1 j\omega + b_2 (j\omega)^2 + \dots + \frac{c_1}{j\omega} + \frac{c_2}{(j\omega)^2} + \dots \right)$$

- The amplitude of the output is the magnitude of the complex number and the phase of the output is the phase of the complex number

$$y = Hx = e^{j\omega t} \left( a + b_1 j\omega + b_2 (j\omega)^2 + \dots + \frac{c_1}{j\omega} + \frac{c_2}{(j\omega)^2} + \dots \right)$$

$$y = e^{j\omega t} |H(\omega)| e^{j\angle H(\omega)}$$

$$\text{Re}[y] = |H(\omega)| \cos(\omega t + \angle H(\omega))$$

# Phasors

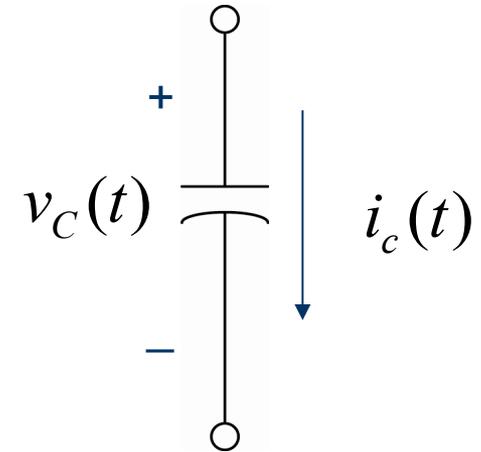
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- With our new confidence in complex numbers, we go full steam ahead and work directly with them ... we can even drop the time factor  $e^{i\omega t}$  since it will cancel out of the equations.
- Excite system with a phasor:  $\tilde{V}_1 = V_1 e^{j\phi_1}$
- Response will also be phasor:  $\tilde{V}_2 = V_2 e^{j\phi_2}$
- For those with a Linear System background, we're going to work in the frequency domain
  - This is the Laplace domain with  $s = j\omega$

# Capacitor I-V Phasor Relation

- Find the Phasor relation for current and voltage in a cap:

$$i_c(t) = C \frac{dv_c(t)}{dt} \quad \begin{array}{l} i_c(t) = I_c e^{j\omega t} \\ v_c(t) = V_c e^{j\omega t} \end{array}$$



$$I_c e^{j\omega t} = C \frac{d}{dt} [V_c e^{j\omega t}]$$

$$C V_c \frac{d}{dt} e^{j\omega t} = j\omega C V_c e^{j\omega t}$$

$$I_c e^{j\omega t} = j\omega C V_c e^{j\omega t}$$

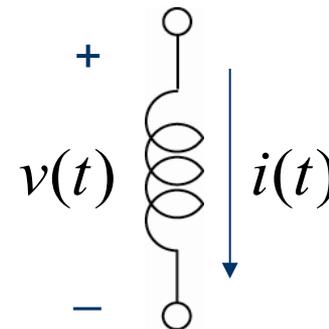
$$I_c = j\omega C V_c$$

# Inductor I-V Phasor Relation

- Find the Phasor relation for current and voltage in an inductor:

$$v(t) = L \frac{di(t)}{dt} \qquad i(t) = Ie^{j\omega t}$$

$$v(t) = Ve^{j\omega t}$$



$$Ve^{j\omega t} = L \frac{d}{dt} [Ie^{j\omega t}]$$

$$LI \frac{d}{dt} e^{j\omega t} = j\omega LIe^{j\omega t}$$

$$Ve^{j\omega t} = j\omega LIe^{j\omega t}$$

$$V = j\omega LI$$

# Complex Transfer Function

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- Excite a system with an input voltage (current)  $x$
- Define the output voltage  $y$  (current) to be any node voltage (branch current)
- For a complex exponential input, the “transfer function” from input to output:

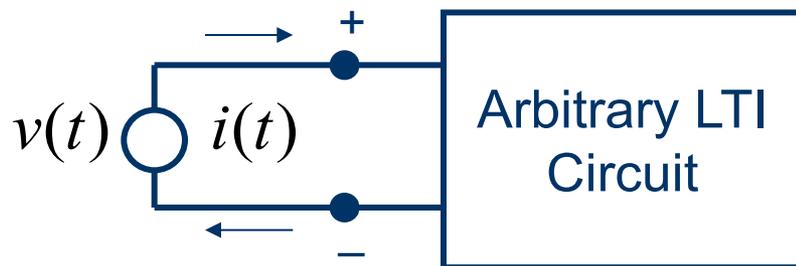
$$H \equiv \frac{y}{x} = \left( a + b_1 j\omega + b_2 (j\omega)^2 + \dots + \frac{c_1}{j\omega} + \frac{c_2}{(j\omega)^2} + \dots \right)$$

- We can write this in canonical form as a rational function:

$$H(\omega) = \frac{n_1 + n_2 j\omega + n_3 (j\omega)^2 + \dots}{d_1 + d_2 j\omega + d_3 (j\omega)^2 + \dots}$$

# Impede the Currents !

- Suppose that the “input” is defined as the current of a terminal pair (*port*) and the “output” is defined as the voltage into the port:



$$v(t) = Ve^{j\omega t} = |V|e^{j(\omega t + \phi_v)}$$

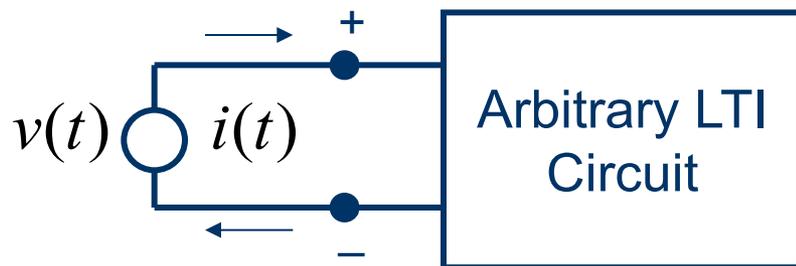
$$i(t) = Ie^{j\omega t} = |I|e^{j(\omega t + \phi_i)}$$

- The impedance  $Z$  is defined as the ratio of the phasor voltage to phasor current (“self” transfer function)

$$Z(\omega) = H(\omega) = \frac{V}{I} = \left| \frac{V}{I} \right| e^{j(\phi_v - \phi_i)}$$

# Admit the Currents!

- Suppose that the “input” is defined as the current of a terminal pair (*port*) and the “output” is defined as the voltage into the port:



$$v(t) = Ve^{j\omega t} = |V|e^{j(\omega t + \phi_v)}$$

$$i(t) = Ie^{j\omega t} = |I|e^{j(\omega t + \phi_i)}$$

- The admittance  $Z$  is defined as the ratio of the phasor current to phasor voltage (“self” transfer function)

$$Y(\omega) = H(\omega) = \frac{I}{V} = \left| \frac{I}{V} \right| e^{j(\phi_i - \phi_v)}$$

# Voltage and Current Gain

- The voltage (current) gain is just the voltage (current) transfer function from one port to another port:



$$G_v(\omega) = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \left| \frac{V_2}{V_1} \right| e^{j(\phi_2 - \phi_1)}$$

$$G_i(\omega) = \frac{I_2}{I_1} = \left| \frac{I_2}{I_1} \right| e^{j(\phi_2 - \phi_1)}$$

- If  $G > 1$ , the circuit has voltage (current) gain
- If  $G < 1$ , the circuit has loss or attenuation

# Transimpedance/admittance

- Current/voltage gain are unitless quantities
- Sometimes we are interested in the transfer of voltage to current or vice versa



$$J(\omega) = \frac{V_2}{I_1} = \left| \frac{V_2}{I_1} \right| e^{j(\phi_2 - \phi_1)} \quad [\Omega]$$

$$K(\omega) = \frac{I_2}{V_1} = \left| \frac{I_2}{V_1} \right| e^{j(\phi_2 - \phi_1)} \quad [S]$$

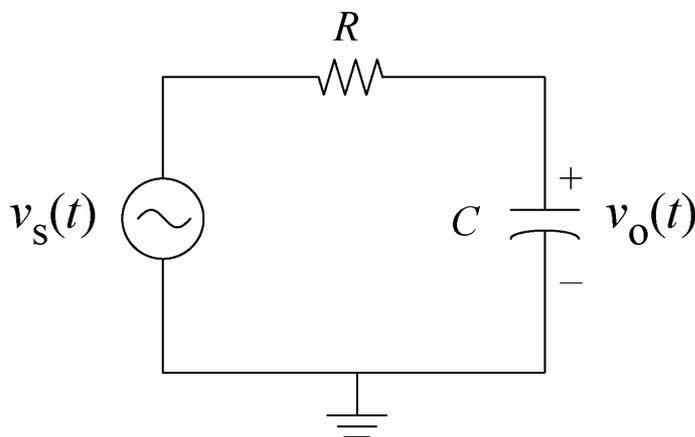
# Direct Calculation of $H$ (no DEs)

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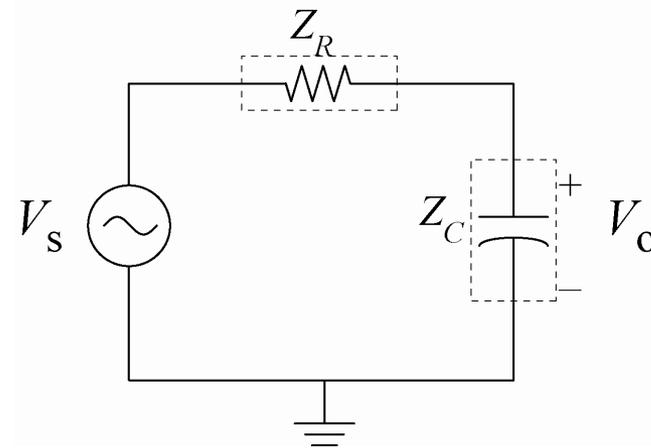
- To directly calculate the transfer function (impedance, trans-impedance, etc) we can generalize the circuit analysis concept from the “real” domain to the “phasor” domain
- With the concept of impedance (admittance), we can now directly analyze a circuit without explicitly writing down any differential equations
- Use KVL, KCL, mesh analysis, loop analysis, or node analysis where inductors and capacitors are treated as complex resistors

# LPF Example: Again!

- Instead of setting up the DE in the time-domain, let's do it directly in the frequency domain
- Treat the capacitor as an imaginary “resistance” or impedance:



time domain “real” circuit



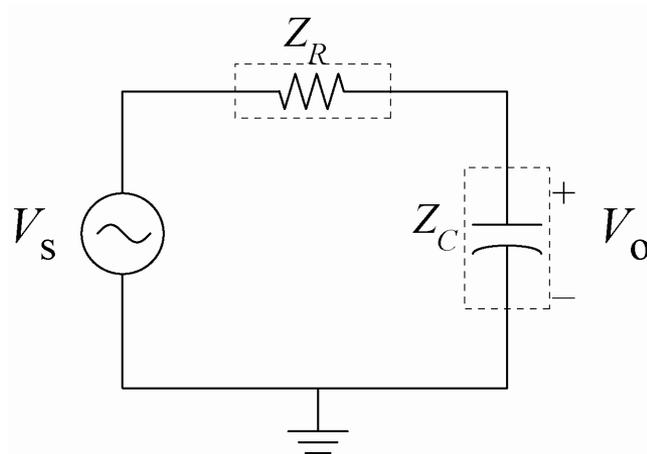
frequency domain “phasor” circuit

- We know the impedances:

$$Z_R = R$$

$$Z_C = \frac{1}{j\omega C}$$

# LPF ... Voltage Divider

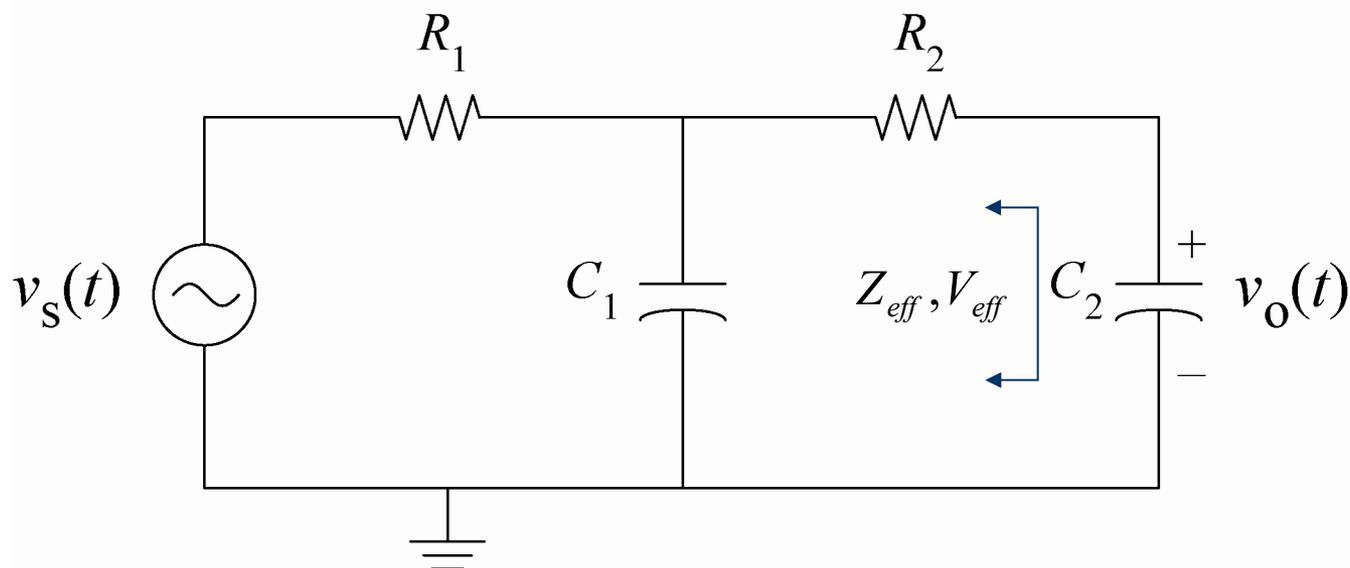


- Fast way to solve problem is to say that the LPF is really a voltage divider

$$H(\omega) = \frac{V_o}{V_s} = \frac{Z_C}{Z_C + Z_R} = \frac{1}{R + \frac{1}{j\omega C}} = \frac{1}{1 + j\omega RC} \quad \checkmark$$

# Bigger Example (no problem!)

- Consider a more complicated example:



$$H(\omega) = \frac{V_o}{V_s} = \frac{Z_{C2}}{Z_{eff} + Z_{C2}} \frac{V_{eff}}{V_s}$$

$$Z_{eff} = R_2 + R_1 \parallel Z_{C1}$$

$$\frac{V_{eff}}{V_s} = \frac{Z_{C1}}{R_1 + Z_{C1}}$$

$$H(\omega) = \frac{Z_{C2}}{R_2 + R_1 \parallel Z_{C1} + Z_{C2}} \cdot \frac{Z_{C1}}{R_1 + Z_{C1}}$$

# Second Order Transfer Function

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- Series RLC circuit

# Poles/Zeros of Shunt RLC Circuit

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# Does it sound better?

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- Application of LPF: Noise Filter
- Listen to the following sound file (corrupted with noise)
- Since the noise has a flat frequency spectrum, if we LPF the signal we should get rid of the high-frequency components of noise
- The filter cutoff frequency should be above the highest frequency produced by the human voice ( $\sim 5$  kHz).
- A high-pass filter (HPF) has the opposite effect, it amplifies the noise and attenuates the signal.



BPF (both tones)



Tones



Tones+ Noise



LPF



BPF on 1<sup>st</sup> tone

# Building Tents: Poles and Zeros

- For most circuits that we'll deal with, the transfer function can be shown to be a rational function

$$H(\omega) = \frac{n_1 + n_2 j\omega + n_3 (j\omega)^2 + \dots}{d_1 + d_2 j\omega + d_3 (j\omega)^2 + \dots}$$

- The behavior of the circuit can be extracted by finding the roots of the numerator and denominator

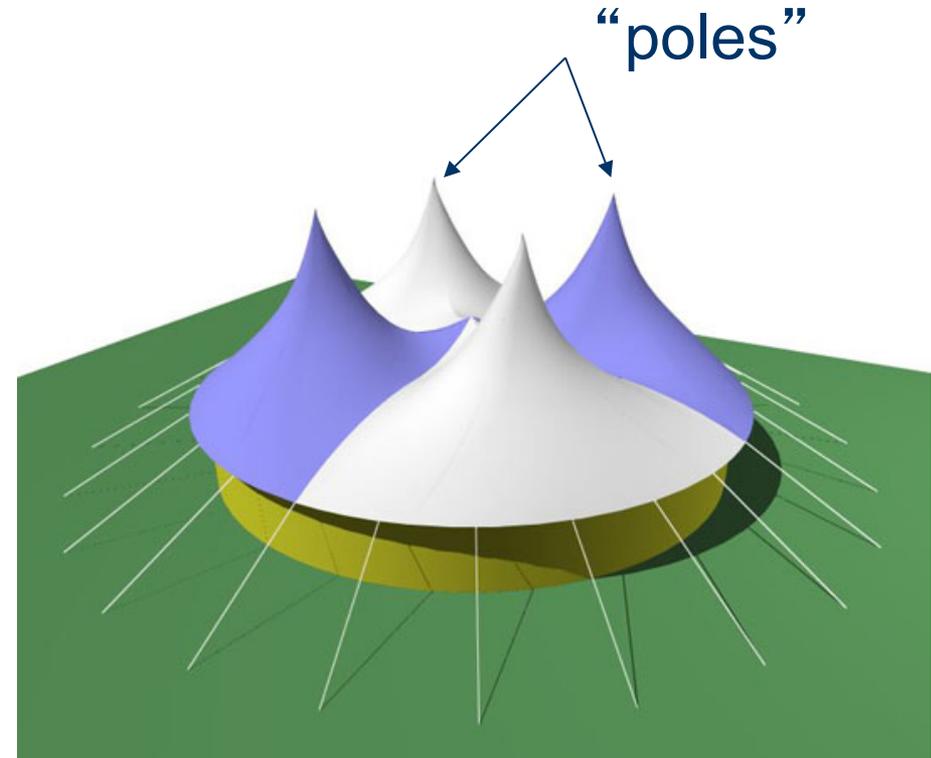
$$H(\omega) = \frac{(z_1 - j\omega)(z_2 - j\omega)\dots}{(p_1 - j\omega)(p_2 - j\omega)\dots} = \frac{\prod (z_i - j\omega)}{\prod (p_i - j\omega)}$$

- Or another form (DC gain explicit)

$$H(\omega) = G_0 (j\omega)^K \frac{(1 - j\omega\tau_{z_1})(1 - j\omega\tau_{z_2})\dots}{(1 - j\omega\tau_{p_1})(1 - j\omega\tau_{p_2})\dots} = G_0 (j\omega)^K \frac{\prod (1 - j\omega\tau_{z,i})}{\prod (1 - j\omega\tau_{p,i})}$$

# Poles and Zeros (cont)

- The roots of the numerator are called the “zeros” since at these frequencies, the transfer function is zero
- The roots of the denominator are called the “poles”, since at these frequencies the transfer function peaks (like a pole in a tent)



$$H(\omega) = \frac{(z_1 - j\omega)(z_2 - j\omega)\cdots}{(p_1 - j\omega)(p_2 - j\omega)\cdots}$$

# Finding the Magnitude (quickly)

- The magnitude of the response can be calculated quickly by using the property of the mag operator:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |H(\omega)| &= \left| G_0 (j\omega)^K \frac{(1 - j\omega\tau_{z1})(1 - j\omega\tau_{z2}) \cdots}{(1 - j\omega\tau_{p1})(1 - j\omega\tau_{p2}) \cdots} \right| \\
 &= |G_0| \omega^K \frac{|1 - j\omega\tau_{z1}| |1 - j\omega\tau_{z2}| \cdots}{|1 - j\omega\tau_{p1}| |1 - j\omega\tau_{p2}| \cdots}
 \end{aligned}$$

- The magnitude at DC depends on  $G_0$  and the number of poles/zeros at DC. If  $K > 0$ , gain is zero. If  $K < 0$ , DC gain is infinite. Otherwise if  $K=0$ , then gain is simply  $G_0$

# Finding the Phase (quickly)

- The phase can be computed quickly with the following formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \angle H(\omega) &= \angle G_0 + \angle (j\omega)^K - \frac{\angle (1 - j\omega\tau_{z1})(1 - j\omega\tau_{z2}) \cdots}{\angle (1 - j\omega\tau_{p1})(1 - j\omega\tau_{p2}) \cdots} \\ &= \angle G_0 + \angle (j\omega)^K + \angle (1 - j\omega\tau_{z1}) + \angle (1 - j\omega\tau_{z2}) + \cdots \\ &\quad - \angle (1 - j\omega\tau_{p1}) - \angle (1 - j\omega\tau_{p2}) - \cdots \end{aligned}$$

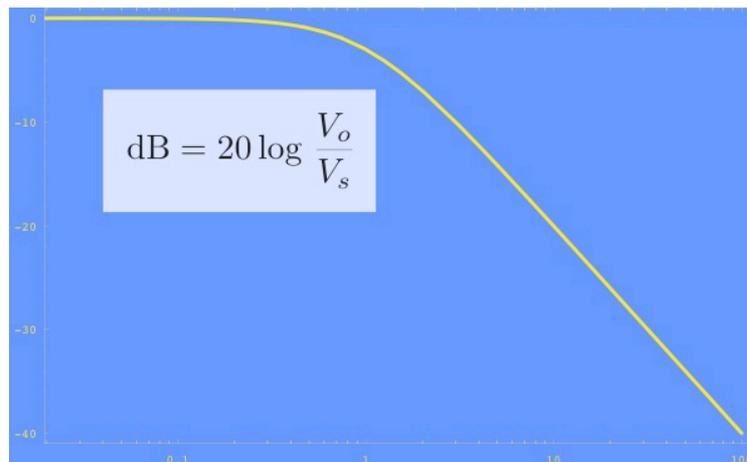
- No the second term is simple to calculate for positive frequencies:

$$\angle (j\omega)^K = K \frac{\pi}{2}$$

- Interpret this as saying that multiplication by  $j$  is equivalent to rotation by 90 degrees

# Bode Plots

- Simply the log-log plot of the magnitude and phase response of a circuit (impedance, transimpedance, gain, ...)
- Gives insight into the behavior of a circuit as a function of frequency
- The “log” expands the scale so that breakpoints in the transfer function are clearly delineated
- In EECS 140, Bode plots are used to “compensate” circuits in feedback loops



# Example: High-Pass Filter

- Using the voltage divider rule:

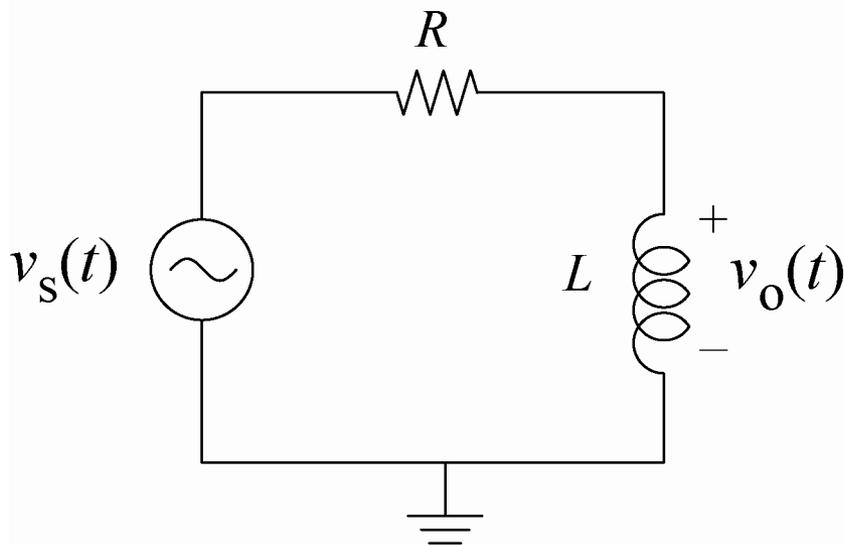
$$H(\omega) = \frac{j\omega L}{R + j\omega L} = \frac{j\omega \frac{L}{R}}{1 + j\omega \frac{L}{R}}$$

$$H(\omega) = \frac{j\omega\tau}{1 + j\omega\tau}$$

$$\omega \rightarrow \infty \quad |H| \rightarrow \left| \frac{j\omega\tau}{j\omega\tau} \right| = 1$$

$$\omega \rightarrow 0 \quad |H| \rightarrow \frac{0}{1+0} = 0$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\tau} \quad |H| = \left| \frac{j}{1+j} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

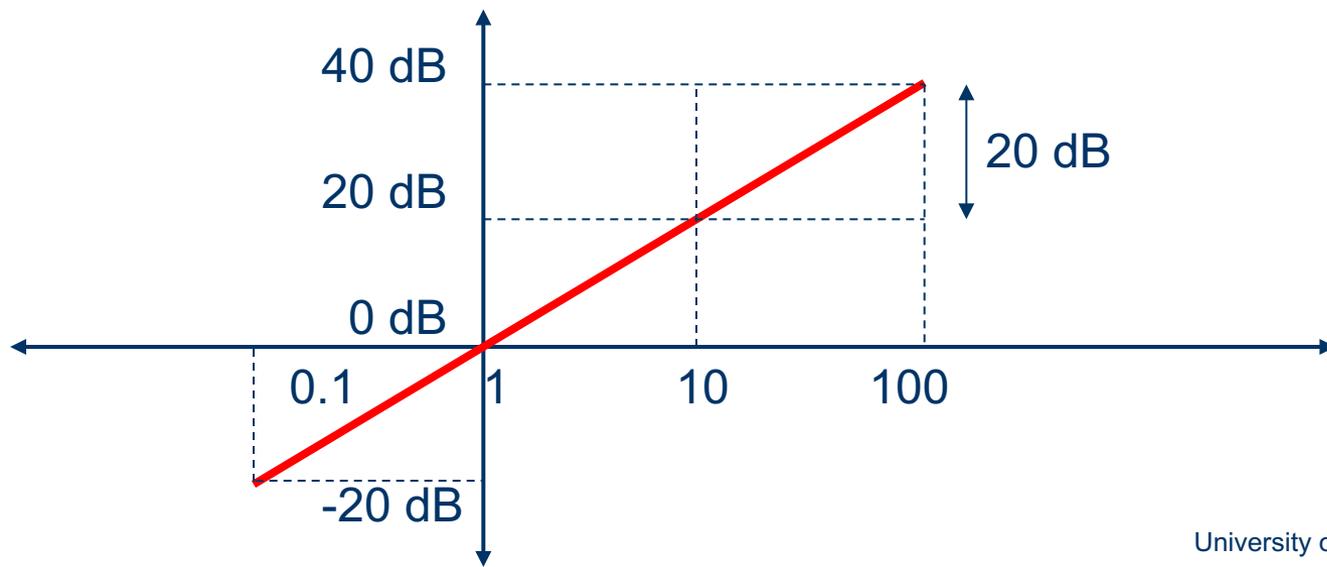


# HPF Magnitude Bode Plot

- Recall that log of product is the sum of log

$$|H(\omega)|_{dB} = \left| \frac{j\omega\tau}{1+j\omega\tau} \right|_{dB} = |j\omega\tau|_{dB} + \left| \frac{1}{1+j\omega\tau} \right|_{dB}$$

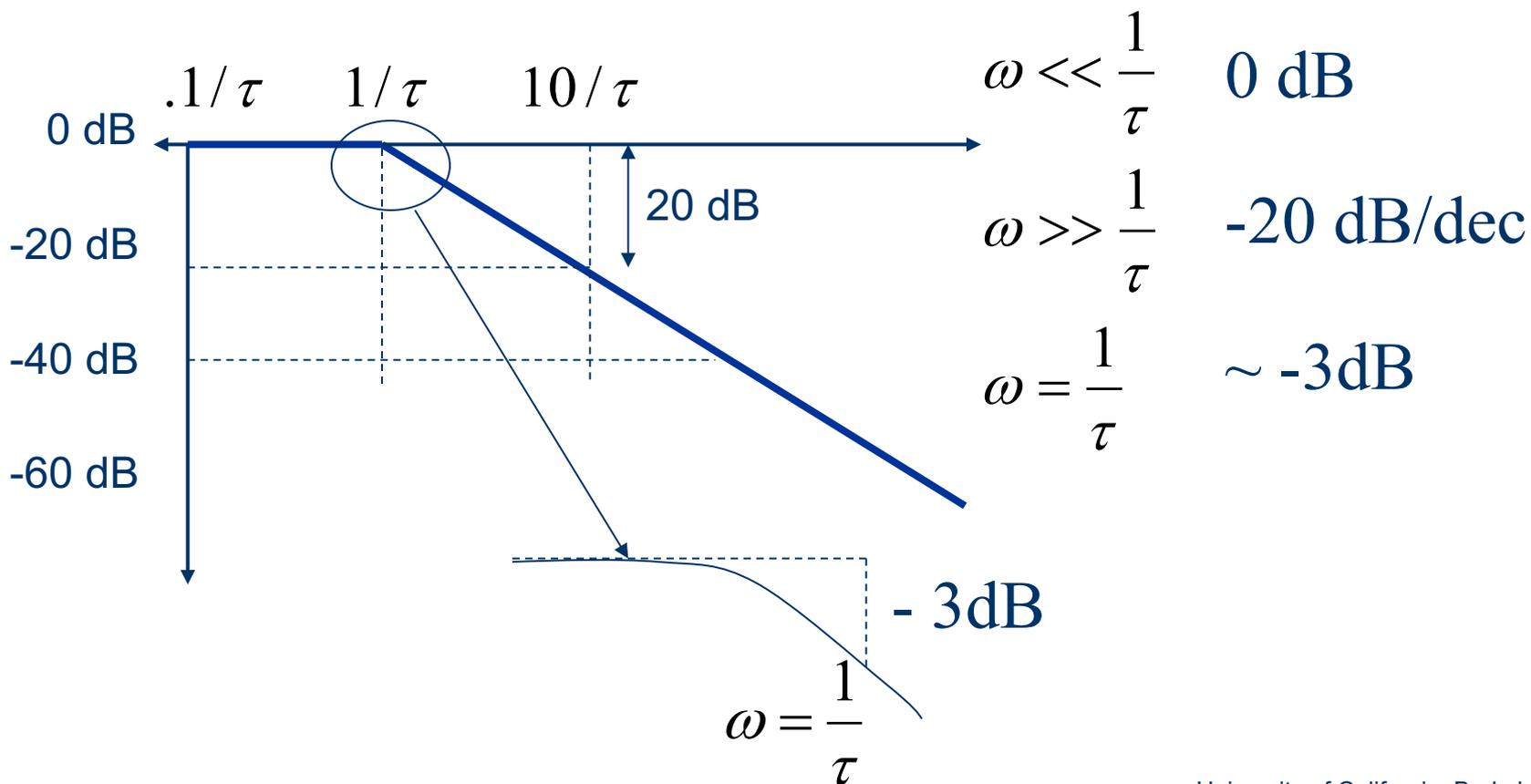
$|j\omega\tau|_{dB}$  ← Increase by 20 dB/decade  
 $\omega\tau = 1 \Rightarrow |j\omega\tau|_{dB} = 0 \text{ dB}$  Equals unity at breakpoint



# HPF Bode Plot (dissection)

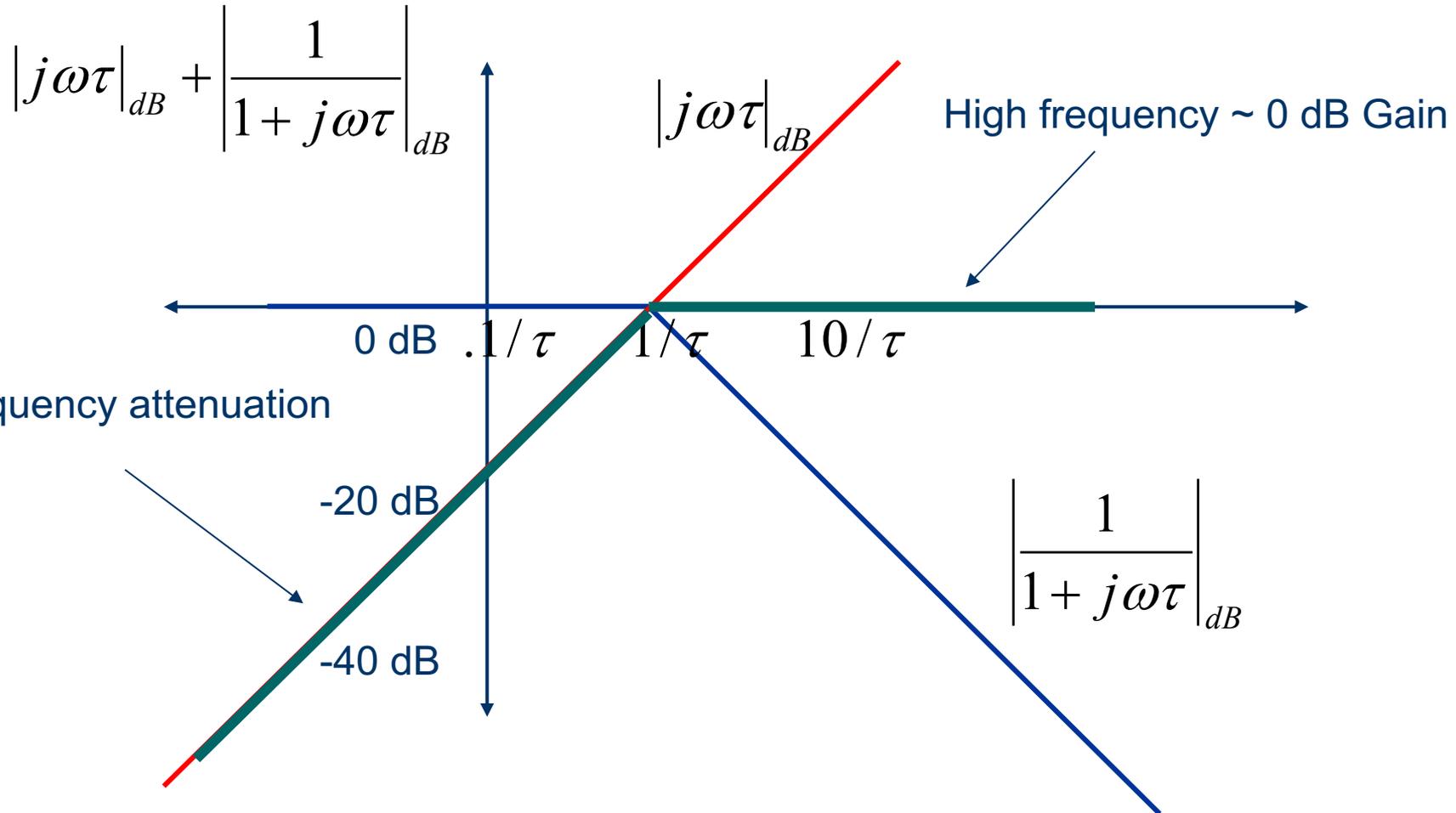
- The second term can be further dissected:

$$\left| \frac{1}{1 + j\omega\tau} \right|_{dB} = 0 \text{ dB} - |1 + j\omega\tau|_{dB}$$

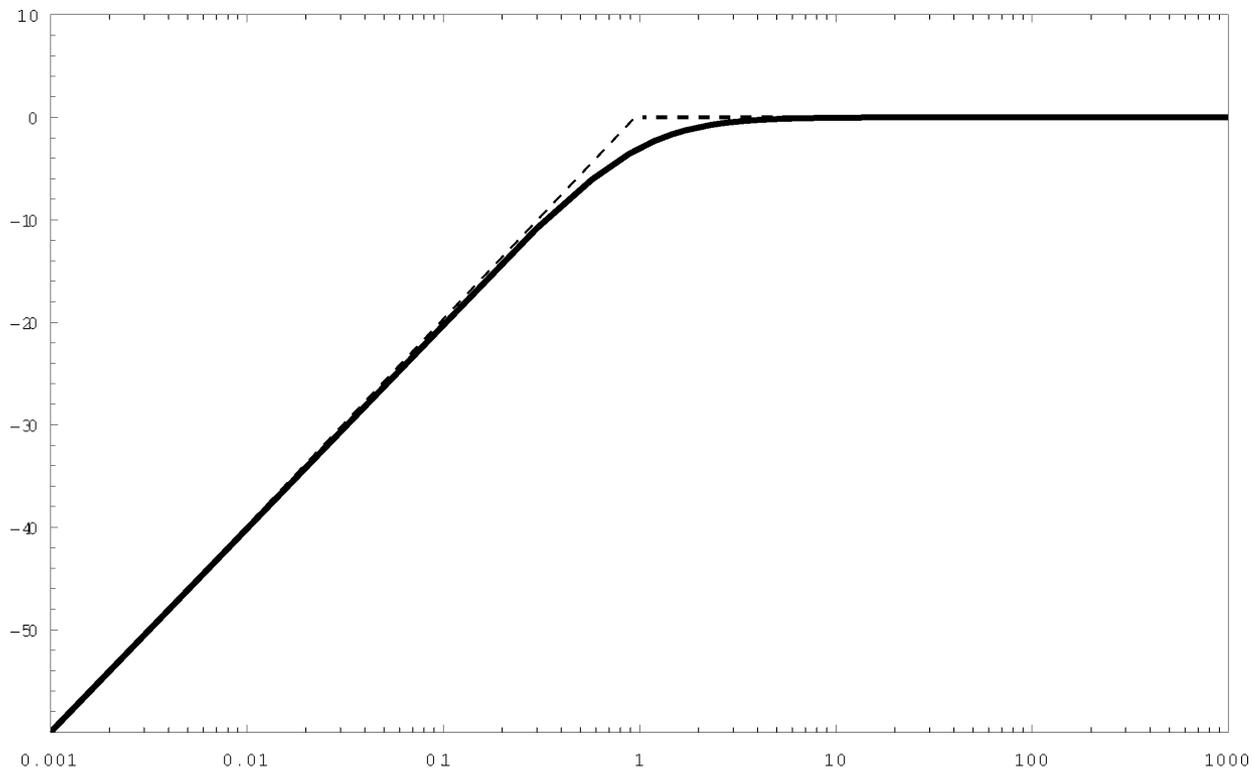


# Composite Plot

- Composite is simply the sum of each component:



# Approximate versus Actual Plot



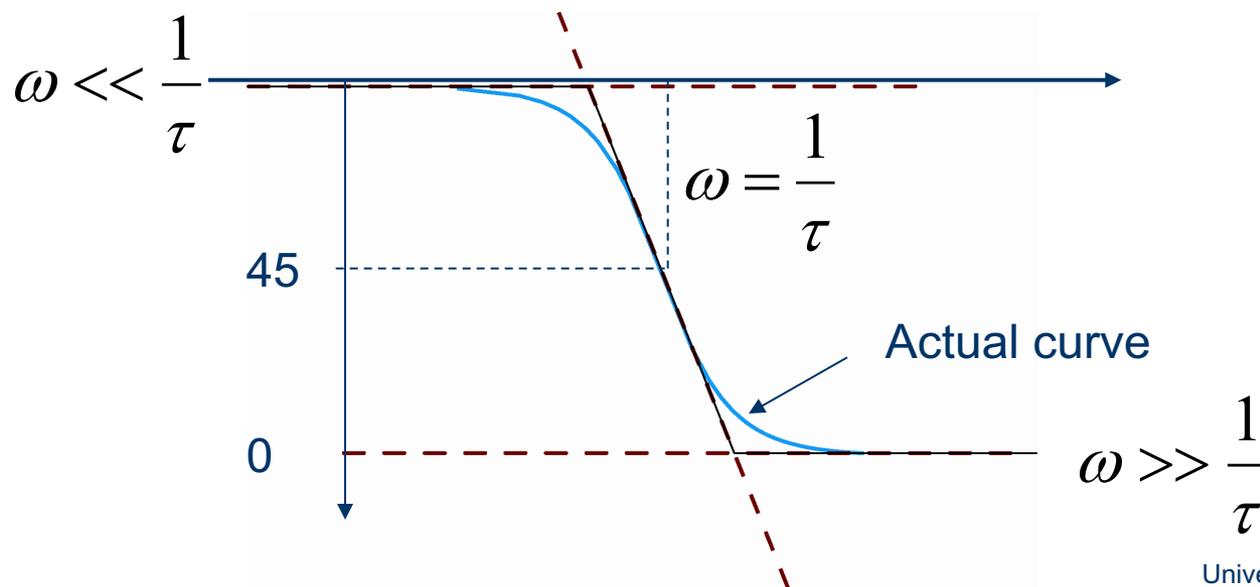
- Approximate curve accurate away from breakpoint
- At breakpoint there is a 3 dB error

# HPF Phase Plot

- Phase can be naturally decomposed as well:

$$\angle H(\omega) = \angle \frac{j\omega\tau}{1+j\omega\tau} = \angle j\omega\tau + \angle \frac{1}{1+j\omega\tau} = \frac{\pi}{2} - \tan^{-1} \omega\tau$$

- First term is simply a constant phase of 90 degrees
- The second term is the arctan function
- Estimate arctan function:



# “s” Complex Plane

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- You may see people talking about transfer functions as a function of complex “s” rather than frequency

$$H(s) = \frac{(z_1 - s)(z_2 - s)\cdots}{(p_1 - s)(p_2 - s)\cdots}$$

- This is a generalization (Laplace Domain) of frequency that you will learn about later. For now, just evaluate the function as follows

$$H(s = j\omega) = \frac{(z_1 - j\omega)(z_2 - j\omega)\cdots}{(p_1 - j\omega)(p_2 - j\omega)\cdots}$$

- This is why you may see people defining a function like:

$$H(j\omega)$$

# Power Flow

- The instantaneous power flow into any element is the product of the voltage and current:  $P(t) = i(t)v(t)$
- For a periodic excitation, the average power is:

$$P_{av} = \int_T i(\tau)v(\tau)d\tau$$

- In terms of sinusoids we have

$$P_{av} = \int_T |I| \cos(\omega t + \varphi_i) |V| \cos(\omega t + \varphi_v) d\tau$$

$$= |I| \cdot |V| \int_T (\cos \omega t \cos \varphi_i - \sin \omega t \sin \varphi_i) \cdot (\cos \omega t \cos \varphi_v - \sin \omega t \sin \varphi_v) d\tau$$

$$= |I| \cdot |V| \int_T d\tau \cos^2 \omega t \cos \varphi_i \cos \varphi_v + \sin^2 \omega t \sin \varphi_i \sin \varphi_v + \cancel{c \sin \omega t \cos \omega t}$$

$$= \frac{|I| \cdot |V|}{2} (\cos \varphi_i \cos \varphi_v + \sin \varphi_i \sin \varphi_v) = \frac{|I| \cdot |V|}{2} \cos(\varphi_i - \varphi_v)$$

# Power Flow with Phasors

$$P_{av} = \frac{|I| \cdot |V|}{2} \cos(\phi_i - \phi_v)$$

↑  
Power Factor

- Note that if  $(\phi_i - \phi_v) = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then  $P_{av} = \frac{|I| \cdot |V|}{2} \cos(\pi / 2) = 0$
- Important: Power is a non-linear function so we can't simply take the real part of the product of the phasors:

$$P \neq \text{Re}[I \cdot V]$$

- From our previous calculation:

$$P = \frac{|I| \cdot |V|}{2} \cos(\phi_i - \phi_v) = \frac{1}{2} \text{Re}[I \cdot V^*] = \frac{1}{2} \text{Re}[I^* \cdot V]$$

# More Power to You!

- In terms of the circuit impedance we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P &= \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re}[I \cdot V^*] = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re}\left[\frac{V}{Z} \cdot V^*\right] = \frac{|V|^2}{2} \operatorname{Re}[Z^{-1}] \\
 &= \frac{|V|^2}{2} \operatorname{Re}\left[\frac{Z^*}{|Z|^2}\right] = \frac{|V|^2}{2|Z|^2} \operatorname{Re}[Z^*] = \frac{|V|^2}{2|Z|^2} \operatorname{Re}[Z]
 \end{aligned}$$

- Check the result for a real impedance (resistor)
- Also, in terms of current:

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re}[I^* \cdot V] = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re}[I^* \cdot I \cdot Z] = \frac{|I|^2}{2} \operatorname{Re}[Z]$$

# Summary

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- Complex exponentials are eigen-functions of LTI systems
  - Steady-state response of LCR circuits are LTI systems
  - Phasor analysis allows us to treat all LCR circuits as simple “resistive” circuits by using the concept of impedance (admittance)
- Frequency response allows us to completely characterize a system
  - Any input can be decomposed into either a continuum or discrete sum of frequency components
  - The transfer function is usually plotted in the log-log domain (Bode plot) – magnitude and phase
  - Location of poles/zeros is key