

## 13. Laplace Transform

### Review of Improper Integrals

An integral of the form

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt$$

is called an *improper integral* if at least one of the following conditions is satisfied.

1.  $a = -\infty$
2.  $b = +\infty$
3.  $\lim_{t \rightarrow a+} f(t) = \pm\infty$
4.  $\lim_{t \rightarrow b-} f(t) = \pm\infty$

At this time, we only need to consider the case where  $a$  is a finite real number and  $b = +\infty$ . Thus, we consider expressions of the form

$$\int_a^\infty f(t)dt.$$

In this case, we define the value of this expression to be

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(t)dt$$

whenever the limit exists. This assumes that the numbers  $F(b) = \int_a^b f(t)dt$  exist for each  $b > a$ , and the limit of the numbers  $F(b)$  as  $b$  approaches plus infinity exists.

If this limit is finite, then we say the integral *converges*. Otherwise, we say the integral *diverges*.

Let us take some examples.

**Example 1:**

Fix a positive real number  $p > 0$ . Let  $a > 0$ , and consider the improper integral

$$\int_a^\infty \frac{dt}{t^p}.$$

For  $a < b$ , we have

$$\int_a^b \frac{dt}{t^p} = \frac{t^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \Big|_{t=a}^{t=b} = \frac{b^{1-p}}{1-p} - \frac{a^{1-p}}{1-p}$$

We have three cases:

1.  $0 < p < 1$ .

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b \frac{dt}{t^p} = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b^{1-p}}{1-p} - \frac{a^{1-p}}{1-p} = +\infty,$$

so, the integral diverges.

2.  $p = 1$ .

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b \frac{dt}{t^p} = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b \frac{dt}{t} = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \log(b) - \log(a) = +\infty,$$

so, the integral diverges again.

3.  $p > 1$ .

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b \frac{dt}{t^p} = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b^{1-p}}{1-p} - \frac{a^{1-p}}{1-p} = -\frac{a^{1-p}}{1-p},$$

so, the integral converges.

### Example 2.

Consider the integral

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-ct} dt.$$

where  $c > 0$  is a positive real number.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty e^{-ct} dt &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b e^{-ct} dt \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left. \frac{-1}{c} e^{-ct} \right|_{t=0}^{t=b} \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-1}{c} e^{-cb} + \frac{1}{c} \\ &= \frac{1}{c}, \end{aligned}$$

so, the integral always converges.

### General Facts about improper integrals:

1. If

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = L$$

exists and is finite, then

$$\int_a^\infty f(t)dt$$

converges if and only if

$$\int_a^\infty g(t)dt$$

converges.

2. Assume  $0 \leq f(t) < g(t)$  for all  $t$ . If  $\int_0^\infty g(t)dt$  converges, then so does  $\int_0^\infty f(t)dt$ . On the other hand, if  $\int_0^\infty f(t)dt$  diverges, then so does  $\int_0^\infty g(t)dt$ .
3. If  $f(t)$  is a non-negative nonincreasing function on the infinite interval  $(0, \infty)$ , then

$$\int_1^\infty f(t)dt$$

converges if and only if the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n)$$

converges.

Now, we define the Laplace transform  $\mathcal{L}(s)$  of the function  $f(t)$  to be the integral

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

This integral may converge only for some values of  $s$ , so the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  will only be defined for those values of  $s$ .

Let us take some examples.

1. Consider the constant function  $f(t) = 1$  for all  $t$ . We write its Laplace transform as  $\mathcal{L}(1)$ . Let's compute it.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(1) &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} dt \\ &= \left. \frac{-1}{s} e^{-st} \right|_{t=0}^{t=\infty} \\ &= \frac{1}{s}\end{aligned}$$

for  $s > 0$ .

2. Consider the function  $f(t) = e^{at}$ .

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(e^{at}) &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} e^{at} dt \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st+at} dt \\ &= \left. \frac{-1}{s-a} e^{-(s-a)t} \right|_{t=0}^{t=\infty}\end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{s - a}$$

for  $s > a$ .

3. For  $n \geq 0$ , we have

$$\mathcal{L}(t^n) = \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}. \quad (1)$$

**Proof.** This is by induction on  $n$ .

First we describe the

*Principle of Mathematical Induction.*

This principle says the following.

Suppose  $n_0$  is an integer, and  $S(n)$  represents a statement about integers  $n \geq n_0$ . If one knows that

- (a)  $S(n_0)$  is true.
- (b) Whenever  $S(n)$  is assumed true, it follows that  $S(n + 1)$  is also true.

Then, one concludes that

$$S(n) \text{ is true for all integers} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{greater than or equal to } n_0.$$

The idea behind this is that if there were some integer  $m > n_0$  for which  $S(m)$  were false, one could take the least such integer. Let us call it  $n_1$ . Then, we know that  $S(n_1 - 1)$  is true by the choice of  $n_1$ . But, by (b), we know that whenever  $S(n)$  is true, then so is  $S(n + 1)$ . This would imply that  $S(n_1)$  is also true, which contradicts the earlier statement that it was false. Hence, the assumption that there is an  $m > n_0$  for which  $S(m)$  is false was wrong, and we conclude that (2) is true.

Let us return to the proof of (1).

We have already done the case  $n = 0$ . Assume it holds for  $n$ , we show it holds for  $n + 1$ .

Integrating by parts, and using the inductive assumption for  $n$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}(t^{n+1}) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} t^{n+1} dt \\
 &= -\frac{1}{s} e^{-st} t^{n+1} \Big|_{t=0}^{t=\infty} - \left( \int_0^\infty -\frac{1}{s} e^{-st} (n+1) t^n dt \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{s} (n+1) \mathcal{L}(t^n) \\
 &= \frac{1}{s} (n+1) \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)!}{s^{n+2}}$$

which is the statement for  $n+1$ .

4.

$$\mathcal{L}(\sin(at)) = \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\cos(at)) = \frac{s}{s^2 + a^2}$$

These can be proved by integration by parts or using complex variables. We present the second method.

Note that if  $f(t) = u(t) + iv(t)$  is a complex valued function of  $t$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(f(t)) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st}(u(t) + iv(t))dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st}(u(t))dt + i \int_0^\infty e^{-st}(v(t))dt \\ &= \mathcal{L}(u(t)) + i\mathcal{L}(v(t)) \end{aligned}$$

Using this, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\sin(at)) &= \mathcal{L}(\text{Im}(e^{iat})) \\ &= \text{Im}(\mathcal{L}(e^{iat})) \\ &= \text{Im}\left(\frac{1}{s - ai}\right) \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{s + ai}{s^2 + a^2}\right) \\
&= \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\mathcal{L}(\cos(at)) = \frac{s}{s^2 + a^2}.$$

### Some useful facts

1. If  $\mathcal{L}(f(t)) = F(s)$ , then  $\mathcal{L}(e^{at}f(t)) = F(s - a)$ .

To verify this, notice that

$$\begin{aligned}
F(s - a) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-(s-a)t} f(t) dt \\
&= \int_0^\infty e^{-st+at} f(t) dt \\
&= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} e^{at} f(t) dt \\
&= \mathcal{L}(e^{at}f(t)).
\end{aligned}$$

2. If  $\mathcal{L}(f(t)) = F(s)$ , then  $\mathcal{L}(tf(t)) = -F'(s)$ .

The verification is an application of *differentiation under the integral sign*.

This states that if  $H(s, t)$  and  $\frac{dH(s, t)}{ds}$  are continuous functions of  $t$ , then  $\int_a^b H(s, t) dt$  is a differentiable function of  $s$ , and

$$\frac{d}{ds} \left( \int_a^b H(s, t) dt \right) = \int_a^b \frac{dH(s, t)}{ds} dt$$

This holds for finite definite integrals, and, passing to the limit, for convergent integrals of the form

$$\int_a^\infty H(s, t) dt$$

Applying this to  $F(s) = \mathcal{L}(f(t))$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF}{ds} &= \frac{d}{ds} \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty \left( \frac{d}{ds} e^{-st} f(t) \right) dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty -te^{-st} f(t) dt \\ &= -\mathcal{L}(tf(t)) \end{aligned}$$

Note that we can iterate this and get, for each  $n > 0$ ,

$$\mathcal{L}(t^n f(t)) = (-1)^n F^{(n)}(s)$$

where  $F^{(n)}(s)$  denotes the  $n$ -th derivative of  $F$  at  $s$ .

## General Properties of the Laplace transform.

1. Linearity: The function  $\mathcal{L}$  is linear. That is, if  $F(s) = \mathcal{L}(f(t))$ , and  $G(s) = \mathcal{L}(g(t))$  and  $a, b$  are constants, then

$$\mathcal{L}(af(t)+bg(t)) = a\mathcal{L}(f(t))+b\mathcal{L}(g(t)) = aF(s)+bG(s).$$

2. Existence: Let us say that a function  $f$  defined on the closed interval  $[\alpha, \beta]$  is piecewise continuous if there is a finite set of points  $\alpha = \alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \dots < \alpha_r = \beta$  such that  $f$  is continuous on each interval  $\alpha_i < t < \alpha_{i+1}$ . We say that  $f$  is piecewise continuous on the interval  $[0, \infty)$  if it is piecewise continuous on each finite subinterval  $[0, A]$  for  $A > 0$ .

If  $f$  is piecewise continuous on the interval  $[0, \infty)$  and there are constants  $C > 0$  and  $a > 0$  such that

$$|f(t)| \leq Ce^{at}, \quad \forall t \in [0, \infty), \quad (3)$$

then  $\mathcal{L}(f(t))$  exists for  $s > a$ .

A piecewise continuous function  $f$  satisfying the inequality (3) is said to be of *exponential order*.

3. Uniqueness: if  $f$  and  $g$  are piecewise continuous and satisfy

$$|f(t)| \leq Ce^{at}, \text{ and } |g(t)| \leq Ce^{at}, \quad \forall t \in [0, \infty)$$

and  $\mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \mathcal{L}(g(t))$  for  $s > a$ , then  $f(t) = g(t)$  except for at most a sequence of points. Indeed for any  $A > 0$ , there are at most finitely many points in  $[0, A]$  at which  $f(t)$  and  $g(t)$  can fail to be equal.

In the above case, if  $\mathcal{L}(f(t)) = F(s)$ , we say  $\mathcal{L}^{-1}(F(s)) = f(t)$ , and we call the operator  $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$  the *inverse Laplace transform*. It is defined on those functions which are of exponential order.