

18.03 Lecture 26, April 14

Laplace Transform: basic properties; functions of a complex variable;  
poles  
diagrams; s-shift law.

[1] The Laplace transform connects two worlds:

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| The t domain
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| t  is real and positive
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| functions f(t)  are signals, perhaps nasty, with discontinuities
| and delta functions
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| ODEs relating them
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| convolution
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| systems represented by their weight functions w(t)
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$$\begin{array}{c} L \quad | \quad \hat{v} \\ \downarrow \quad | \quad \uparrow \\ v \quad | \quad L^{-1} \end{array}$$

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| The s domain
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| s  is complex
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|
| beautiful functions F(s) , often rational = poly/poly
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| and algebraic equations relating them
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| ordinary multiplication of functions
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| systems represented by their transfer functions W(s)
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The use in ODEs will be to apply  $L$  to an ODE, solve the resulting very simple algebraic equation in the  $s$  world, and then return to reality using the "inverse Laplace transform"  $L^{-1}$ .

[2] The definition can be motivated but it is more efficient to simply give it and come to the motivation later. Here it is.

We continue to consider functions (possibly generalized)  $f(t)$  such that  $f(t) = 0$  for  $t < 0$ .

$F(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt$  [to be emended]

This is like a hologram, in that each value  $F(s)$  contains information about ALL values of  $f(t)$ .

Example:  $f(t) = u(t)$  :

$$\begin{aligned} F(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} dt \\ &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} e^{-sT}/(-s) |^T_0 \\ &= (-1/s) (\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} e^{-st} - 1). \end{aligned}$$

To compute this limit, write  $s = a + bi$  so

$$e^{-st} = e^{-at} (\cos(-bt) + i \sin(-bt))$$

The second factor lies on the unit circle, so  $|e^{-st}| = e^{-at}$ . This goes to infinity with  $T$  if  $a < 0$  and to zero if  $a > 0$ . Thus:

$$F(s) = 1/s \text{ for } \operatorname{Re}(s) > 0$$

and the improper integral fails to converge for  $\operatorname{Re}(s) < 0$ .

[3] This is typical behavior: the integral converges to the right of some vertical line in the complex plane  $C$ , and diverges to the left, provided that  $f(t)$  doesn't grow too fast. Technically, there should exist a real number  $k$  such that for all large  $t$ ,

$$|f(t)| < e^{\{kt\}}$$

In the definition we should add:

"for  $\operatorname{Re}(s)$  large."

The expression obtained by means of the integration makes sense everywhere in  $C$  except for a few points - like  $s = 0$  here - and this is how we define the Laplace transform for values of  $s$  with small real part.

[4] This computation can be exploited using general properties of the Laplace Transform. We'll develop quite a few of these rules, and in fact normally you will not be using the integral definition to compute Laplace transforms.

Rule 1 (Linearity):  $L[af(t) + bg(t)] = aF(s) + bG(s)$ .

This is clear, and has the usual benefits.

Rule 2 (s-shift): If  $z$  is any complex number,  $L[e^{\{zt\}}f(t)] = F(s-z)$ .

Here's the calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} L[e^{\{zt\}}f(t)] &= \text{integral}_0^\infty e^{\{zt\}} f(t) e^{\{-st\}} dt \\ &= \text{integral}_0^\infty f(t) e^{\{-(s-z)t\}} dt \\ &= F(s-z). \end{aligned}$$

Using  $f(t) = 1$  and our calculation of its Laplace transform we find

$$L[e^{\{zt\}}] = 1/(s-z). \quad (*)$$

[5] Especially, we've computed  $L[e^{\{at\}}]$  for a real.

This calculation (\*) is more powerful than you may imagine at first, since  $z$  may be complex. Using linearity and

$$\cos(\omega t) = (e^{\{i\omega t\}} + e^{\{-i\omega t\}})/2$$

we find

$$L[\cos(\omega t)] = (1/(s - i\omega) + 1/(s + i\omega))/2$$

Cross multiplying, we can rewrite

$$L[\cos(\omega t)] = s/(s^2 + \omega^2)$$

Using

$$\sin(\omega t) = (e^{\{i\omega t\}} - e^{\{-i\omega t\}})/(2i)$$

we find

$$L[\sin(\omega t)] = \omega / (s^2 + \omega^2).$$

[6] The delta function:

Something new about  $\delta(t)$ :

If  $f(t)$  is continuous at  $b$ ,  $f(t) \delta(t-b) = f(b) \delta(t-b)$ .

Therefore whenever  $a < b < c$ ,  $\int_a^c f(t) \delta(t-b) dt = f(b)$ : integrating against  $\delta(t)$  picks out the value of  $f(t)$  at  $t = b$ .

Thus, for  $b \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} L[\delta(t-b)] &= \int_0^\infty \delta(t-b) e^{-st} dt \\ &= e^{-bs} \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$L[\delta(t)] = 1$$

This example shows that actually we should write

$$L[f(t)] = \int_{0-}^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt$$

to be sure to include any singularities at  $t = 0$ .

[7] The relationship with differential equations:

Compute:

$$\begin{aligned} L[f'(t)] &= \int_{0-}^\infty f'(t) e^{-st} dt \\ u &= e^{-st} & du &= -s e^{-st} dt \\ dv &= f'(t) dt & v &= f(t) \\ \dots &= e^{-st} f(t) \Big|_{0-}^\infty + s \int_{0-}^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt \end{aligned}$$

The evaluation of the first term at  $t = \infty$  is zero, by our assumption about the growth of  $f(t)$ , assuming that  $\operatorname{Re}(s)$  is large enough. The evaluation at  $t = 0-$  is zero because  $f(0-) = 0$ . Thus:

$$\dots = s F(s)$$

Now, what is  $f'(t)$ ? If  $f(t)$  has discontinuities, we must mean the generalized derivative. There is one discontinuity in  $f(t)$  that we can't just wish away:  $f(0-) = 0$ , while we had better let  $f(0+)$  be whatever it wants to be. We have to expect a discontinuity at  $t = 0$ .

Just to keep the notation in bounds, lets suppose that  $f(t)$  is differentiable for  $t > 0$ . Then

$(f')_r(t)$  is the ordinary derivative

$$(f')_s(t) = f(0+) \delta(t)$$

and the generalized derivative is the sum. Thus

$$L[f'(t)] = f(0+) + L[f'_r(t)]$$

and so

$$L[f'_r(t)] = s F(s) - f(0+) .$$