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1 Picard's Iteration Method

This method is used to find successive approximations to the unknown solution of a first-order initial value problem. Consider the IVP:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) ; \quad y(x_0) = y_0 \quad (1)$$

This is equivalent to the following integral equation:

$$y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t))dt \quad (2)$$

Integrating (1), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{x_0}^x \frac{dy}{dx} dx &= \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t))dt \\ \implies y(x) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t))dt \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore (1) \implies (2)$. Now, differentiating (2), we get

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 + f(x, y(x)) = f(x, y).$$

Also,

$$y(x_0) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x_0} f(t, y(t))dt = y_0,$$

$\therefore (2) \implies (1)$. Since $y(t)$ is unknown, we can't use that in the integral, so we use $y(t) = y_0$ in the integral to get a function $y_1(x)$, i.e.

$$y_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0)dt.$$

Then we use $y(t) = y_1(t)$ in the integral to get the next approximation:

$$y_2(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t))dt.$$

In general,

$$y_{n+1}(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_n(t))dt.$$

$y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x), \dots$ are called the Picard iterations. Note that all $y_n(x)$ satisfy the initial condition $y_n(x_0) = y_0$. But none of them may satisfy the ODE. However, under some conditions on $f(x, y)$, $y_n(x)$ converges to the unique solution $y(x)$ to the IVP.

Example 1. Consider the IVP $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y ; y(0) = 0$. Note that this can be solved easily to get $y(x) = e^x - x - 1$. Let's find the Picard iterations. Here, $f(x, y) = x + y$ & $x_0 = 0, y_0 = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} y_1(x) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0) dt \\ &= 0 + \int_0^x f(t, 0) dt \\ \therefore y_1(x) &= \int_0^x t dt = \frac{x^2}{2}. \\ y_2(x) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t)) dt \\ &= 0 + \int_0^x (t + y_1(t)) dt \\ &= \int_0^x \left(t + \frac{t^2}{2} \right) dt = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Similarly, } y_3(x) &= 0 + \int_0^x f(t, y_2(t)) dt \\ &= \int_0^x \left(t + \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^3}{6} \right) dt = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{By induction, } y_n(x) &= \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}, \quad n \geq 1, \\ &= e^x - x - 1. \end{aligned}$$

In practice, we can use $y_n(x)$ for large enough n to approximate the solution $y(x)$ to the given IVP when we are not able to find the actual solution.

2 Existence and Uniqueness of First-Order IVP

Some examples:

1. The IVP $|y'| + |y| = 0 ; y(0) = 1$ has no solutions because $|y'| + |y| = 0 \implies |y| = 0 \implies y = 0 \implies y(0) = 0 \neq 1$.
2. The IVP $y' = 2x ; y(0) = 1$ has a unique solution $y = x^2 + 1$.
3. Consider the IVP $xy' = y - 1 ; y(0) = 1$, then $y = 1 + cx$ is a solution for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Hence, an IVP may have no solutions, a unique solution, or more than one solution.

Theorem 1. (*Sufficient conditions for existence of solutions*)

Consider the IVP: $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) ; y(x_0) = y_0$. Suppose the function $f(x, y)$ is continuous on a rectangle $R = \{(x, y) : |x - x_0| \leq a, |y - y_0| \leq b\}$. Assume $|f(x, y)| \leq k \forall (x, y) \in R$ for some constant k . Then the IVP has at least one solution $y(x)$. Also, the solution must be defined for $x \in (x_0 - \alpha, x_0 + \alpha)$, where $\alpha = \min\{a, \frac{b}{k}\}$.

Remark 1. The α that we get in the theorem need not be the maximum possible for a given IVP.

Example 2. Consider the IVP $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + y^2 ; y(0) = 0$. Let's find the maximum possible α given by Theorem 1. Here, $f(x, y) = 1 + y^2$ is continuous everywhere. So, we can take a and b to be as large as we want.

If $R = \{(x, y) : |x| \leq a, |y| \leq b\}$, then

$$|f(x, y)| = 1 + y^2 \leq 1 + b^2 \quad \forall (x, y) \in R.$$

So, $k = 1 + b^2$, then $\frac{b}{k} = \frac{b}{1+b^2} \leq \frac{1}{2}$,

$$\therefore \alpha = \min \left\{ a, \frac{b}{k} \right\} \leq \frac{b}{k} \leq \frac{1}{2}.$$

So, the maximum value α that we get using the existence theorem is $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$.

\therefore Solution $y(x)$ must be defined in the interval $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$.

But, by solving the IVP, we get $y = \tan x$. The solution $y = \tan x$ is defined on $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ which is bigger than $(-\alpha, \alpha)$.

Next question is about the uniqueness of solution. We will see that under an additional condition we can guarantee the uniqueness and existence of solution to the IVP.

Definition 1. (Lipschitz condition) A function $f(x, y)$ of two variables is said to satisfy the "Lipschitz condition" on a region $R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ if \exists a constant M such that

$$|f(x, y_1) - f(x, y_2)| \leq M|y_1 - y_2|$$

for all $(x, y_1), (x, y_2) \in R$.

Remark 2. If $f(x, y)$ is continuous on R and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ is also continuous on R , then f satisfies the Lipschitz condition.

Proof. Let $(x, y_1), (x, y_2) \in R$. Then by the mean value theorem,

$$f(x, y_1) - f(x, y_2) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y^*) (y_1 - y_2)$$

for some y^* between y_1 & y_2 .

$$\implies |f(x, y_1) - f(x, y_2)| = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y^*) \right| |y_1 - y_2|,$$

since $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ is continuous on R , $\exists M$ such that $\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right| \leq M$ on R .

$$\implies |f(x, y_1) - f(x, y_2)| \leq M|y_1 - y_2|.$$

$\therefore f$ satisfies the Lipschitz condition. \square

The converse of the above remark is not true in general.

Example 3. Let $f(x, y) = x + |\sin y|$. Then f satisfies the Lipschitz condition on \mathbb{R}^2 , because

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x, y_1) - f(x, y_2)| &= ||\sin y_1| - |\sin y_2|| \\ &\leq |\sin y_1 - \sin y_2| \\ &\leq |y_1 - y_2|. \end{aligned}$$

But, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ does not exist on the x -axis.

Theorem 2. (Existence and uniqueness) Consider the IVP :

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y); \quad y(x_0) = y_0.$$

Suppose $f(x, y)$ is continuous on a rectangle $R = \{(x, y) : |x - x_0| \leq a, |y - y_0| \leq b\}$ and f satisfies the Lipschitz condition on R . Then the IVP has a unique solution $y(x)$ defined on some open interval containing $x = x_0$.

Example 4. (Non-uniqueness) Consider $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{|y|}$; $y(0) = 0$. Clearly, $y \equiv 0$ is a solution to the above IVP. Let

$$y = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2}{4}, & x \geq 0 \\ -\frac{x^2}{4}, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\implies \frac{dy}{dx} = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2}, & x \geq 0 \\ -\frac{x}{2}, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Also, $\sqrt{|y|} = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{4}} = \frac{|x|}{2} = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2}, & x \geq 0 \\ -\frac{x}{2}, & x < 0 \end{cases}$,

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{|y|}.$$

Also, $y(0) = 0$, $\therefore y(x)$ is also a solution to the IVP.

Example 5. Consider $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{|y|}$; $y(x_0) = y_0$. If $y_0 \neq 0$, then $f(x, y) = \sqrt{|y|}$ satisfies the Lipschitz condition on a small enough rectangle containing (x_0, y_0) . Hence, the IVP has a unique solution if $y_0 \neq 0$.

Example 6. Consider the IVP $y \frac{dy}{dx} = x$; $y(0) = \beta$. Find the values of β for which the IVP has a unique solution, more than one solution, or no solution.

Solution Here, $f(x, y) = \frac{x}{y}$ is continuous for (x, y) except on the line $y = 0$. Also, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = -\frac{x}{y^2}$ is continuous except when $y = 0$. If $\beta \neq 0$, then the existence-uniqueness theorem guarantees a unique solution to the IVP. Here, we can find the solution as follows:

$$y \frac{dy}{dx} = x$$

$$\implies \int y dy = \int x dx$$

$$\implies \frac{y^2}{2} = \frac{x^2}{2} + c$$

$$\because y(0) = \beta \implies c = \frac{\beta^2}{2}$$

$$\therefore y^2 = x^2 + \beta^2 \implies y = \pm \sqrt{x^2 + \beta^2}.$$

We have already seen that if $\beta \neq 0$, then the IVP has a unique solution. Since $y = \sqrt{x^2 + \beta^2} \implies y(0) = |\beta|$, \therefore if $\beta > 0$, then $y = \sqrt{x^2 + \beta^2}$ is a

solution but $y = -\sqrt{x^2 + \beta^2}$ is not a solution to the IVP. Similarly, if $\beta < 0$, then $y = -\sqrt{x^2 + \beta^2}$ is a solution to the IVP but $y = \sqrt{x^2 + \beta^2}$ is not a solution to the IVP.

For $\beta = 0$, the existence-uniqueness theorem does not give us any information. However, $y = x$ and $y = -x$ are clearly solutions to the IVP: $y \frac{dy}{dx} = x$; $y(0) = 0$. ■

Exercise 1. Consider the IVP:

$$(x^2 - 4x) \frac{dy}{dx} = (2x - 4)y ; y(x_0) = y_0.$$

Find (x_0, y_0) for which the IVP has no solution, a unique solution, or more than one solution.

3 Laplace Transforms

Definition 2. Let $f : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be any function. We define the Laplace transform of f as

$$F(s) = (Lf)(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt,$$

provided the improper integral converges.

Example 7. Let $f(t) = 1 \quad \forall t$, then

$$\begin{aligned} F(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \cdot 1 dt = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b e^{-st} dt \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{s} (1 - e^{-bs}) \\ &= \frac{1}{s} \quad \text{for } s > 0, \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore L(1)(s) = \frac{1}{s} \quad \text{for } s > 0.$$

Example 8. Let $f(t) = e^{at}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} F(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} e^{at} dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty e^{-(s-a)t} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{s-a} \quad \text{for } s > a, \\ \therefore L(e^{at})(s) &= \frac{1}{s-a} \quad \text{for } s > a. \end{aligned}$$

Example 9. Let $f(t) = t^n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} F(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} t^n dt \\ &= t^n \left. \frac{e^{-st}}{-s} \right|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty n t^{n-1} \frac{e^{-st}}{-s} dt \\ &= 0 + \frac{n}{s} \int_0^\infty t^{n-1} e^{-st} dt, \quad \text{if } s > 0, \\ &= \frac{n}{s} L(t^{n-1})(s) \\ \therefore L(t^n)(s) &= \frac{n}{s} L(t^{n-1})(s). \end{aligned}$$

By induction,

$$L(t^n)(s) = \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}, \quad s > 0.$$

3.1 Properties of Laplace Transforms

1. Linearity:

$$L(af(t) + bg(t))(s) = aL(f(t))(s) + bL(g(t))(s).$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
L(af(t) + bg(t))(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st}(af(t) + bg(t))dt \\
&= a \int_0^\infty e^{-st}f(t)dt + b \int_0^\infty e^{-st}g(t)dt \\
&= aL(f)(s) + bL(g)(s).
\end{aligned}$$

□

Using this, we can find the Laplace transform of any polynomial. For example,

$$\begin{aligned}
L(t^3 - 2t^2 + t + 3)(s) &= L(t^3)(s) - 2L(t^2)(s) + L(t)(s) + 3L(1)(s) \\
&= \frac{3!}{s^4} - 2\left(\frac{2!}{s^2}\right) + \frac{1!}{s^2} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{s}.
\end{aligned}$$

Laplace transforms of hyperbolic sine and hyperbolic cosine functions:

We know that

$$\begin{aligned}
\sinh(at) &:= \frac{e^{at} - e^{-at}}{2} \\
\therefore L(\sinh(at))(s) &= \frac{1}{2} [L(e^{at}) - L(e^{-at})] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{s-a} - \frac{1}{s+a} \right] \\
\therefore L(\sinh(at))(s) &= \frac{a}{s^2 - a^2} \quad \text{if } s > |a|.
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}
\cosh(at) &:= \frac{e^{at} + e^{-at}}{2} \\
\therefore L(\cosh(at))(s) &= \frac{1}{2} [L(e^{at}) + L(e^{-at})] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{s-a} + \frac{1}{s+a} \right] \\
\therefore L(\cosh(at))(s) &= \frac{s}{s^2 - a^2} \quad \text{if } s > |a|.
\end{aligned}$$

Laplace transforms of sine and cosine functions:

Let $f(t) = \cos(\omega t)$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
F(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \cos(\omega t) dt \\
&= \left. \frac{e^{-st}}{-s} \cos(\omega t) \right|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-st}}{-s} (-\omega) \sin(\omega t) dt \\
&= \frac{1}{s} - \frac{\omega}{s} \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \sin(\omega t) dt, \quad \text{if } s > 0, \\
&= \frac{1}{s} - \frac{\omega}{s} \left[\left. \frac{e^{-st}}{-s} \sin(\omega t) \right|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-st}}{-s} \omega \cos(\omega t) dt \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{s} - \frac{\omega^2}{s^2} F(s) \\
\implies \left(1 + \frac{\omega^2}{s^2}\right) F(s) &= \frac{1}{s} \\
\therefore F(s) &= L(\cos(\omega t))(s) = \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}.
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$L(\sin(\omega t))(s) = \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}.$$

3.2 Inverse Laplace Transforms

Definition 3. If $F(s)$ is the Laplace transform of a function $f(t)$, then $f(t)$ is said to be the inverse Laplace transform of $F(s)$, and is denoted by $L^{-1}(F)(t)$.

Example 10. From example 9,

$$\begin{aligned}
L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{s^n}\right) &= \frac{1}{(n-1)!} L^{-1}\left(\frac{(n-1)!}{s^n}\right) \\
&= \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}.
\end{aligned}$$

Example 11.

$$L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{s^2 + 4}\right) = \frac{1}{2} L^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{s^2 + 2^2}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \sin(2t).$$

3.3 Some More Properties of Laplace Transforms

s-Shifting Property of Laplace Transforms:

Let $F(s) = L(f)(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt$, then

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

$$\implies L(e^{at} f(t))(s) = L(f)(s-a).$$

Also,

$$L^{-1}(F(s-a)) = e^{at} f(t),$$

$$\therefore L^{-1}(F(s-a))(t) = e^{at} L^{-1}(F(s))(t).$$

Example 12. Find $L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{s^2+2s+5}\right)$.

Solution

$$\frac{1}{s^2 + 2s + 5} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 2^2}$$

Let $F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2+2^2}$, then from example 11,

$$\begin{aligned} F(s) &= \frac{1}{2} L(\sin(2t))(s) \\ \implies F(s+1) &= \frac{1}{2} L(e^{-t} \sin(2t))(s) \\ &= L\left(\frac{1}{2} e^{-t} \sin(2t)\right)(s) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{s^2+2s+5}\right) = L^{-1}(F(s+1))(t) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-t} \sin(2t).$$



Derivatives of Laplace Transforms

Let $F(s) = L(f)(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt$, then

$$\begin{aligned} F'(s) &= \frac{d}{ds} \left[\int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt \right] \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial}{\partial s} [e^{-st} f(t)] dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty -te^{-st} f(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} [-tf(t)] dt \\ &= L(-tf(t))(s) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore F'(s) = L(-tf(t))(s) \quad \text{or} \quad L(tf(t))(s) = -F'(s).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore L(t^2 f(t))(s) &= L(t(tf(t)))(s) \\ &= -\frac{d}{ds} [L(tf(t))(s)] \\ &= -\frac{d}{ds} (-F'(s)) \\ &= F''(s). \end{aligned}$$

In general,

$$L(t^n f(t))(s) = (-1)^n F^{(n)}(s) \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots.$$

Example 13. Find $L(t \cos \omega t)$.

Solution We know that $L(\cos \omega t) = \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2} = F(s)$, therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} L(t \cos \omega t) &= -F'(s) \\ &= -\frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2} \right) \\ &= \frac{s^2 - \omega^2}{(s^2 + \omega^2)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

■

Laplace Transform of Derivatives

$$\begin{aligned}
L(f')(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f'(t) dt \\
&= e^{-st} f(t) \Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty -se^{-st} f(t) dt \\
&= 0 - f(0) + s \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt \\
&= -f(0) + sF(s)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore L(f')(s) = sL(f)(s) - f(0).$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\implies L(f'')(s) &= sL(f')(s) - f'(0) \\
&= s[sL(f)(s) - f(0)] - f'(0) \\
\therefore L(f'')(s) &= s^2L(f)(s) - sf(0) - f'(0)
\end{aligned}$$

In general,

$$L(f^{(n)})(s) = s^n L(f)(s) - s^{n-1} f(0) - s^{n-2} f'(0) - \cdots - f^{(n-1)}(0) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Laplace Transform of Integrals

Let

$$g(t) = \int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau,$$

then $g'(t) = f(t)$ and $g(0) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\therefore L(g')(s) &= L(f)(s) \\
\implies sL(g)(s) - g(0) &= F(s) \\
\implies L(g)(s) &= \frac{F(s)}{s} \\
\therefore L \left(\int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau \right) &= \frac{F(s)}{s}.
\end{aligned}$$

Example 14. Find $L^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{s(s^2 + \omega^2)} \right)$.

Solution Let $F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + \omega^2} = \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2} \right) = \frac{1}{\omega} L(\sin \omega t)(s)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \implies f(t) &= \frac{1}{\omega} \sin(\omega t) \\ \therefore L^{-1} \left(\frac{F(s)}{s} \right) &= \int_0^t f(\tau) d\tau \\ &= \int_0^t \frac{1}{\omega} \sin(\omega \tau) d\tau \\ \therefore L^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{s(s^2 + \omega^2)} \right) &= \frac{1}{\omega^2} (1 - \cos \omega t). \end{aligned}$$

■

3.4 Application of Laplace Transforms to Solve IVPs

Example 15. Solve $y'' - y = t$; $y(0) = 1$, $y'(0) = 1$.

Solution Taking the Laplace transform,

$$\begin{aligned} L(y'') - L(y) &= L(t) \\ \implies [s^2 L(y) - sy(0) - y'(0)] - L(y) &= \frac{1}{s^2} \\ \implies (s^2 - 1)L(y)(s) - s - 1 &= \frac{1}{s^2} \\ \implies (s^2 - 1)L(y)(s) &= \frac{1}{s^2} + s + 1 \\ \implies L(y)(s) &= \frac{1}{s^2(s^2 - 1)} + \frac{s + 1}{s^2 - 1} \\ &= \frac{1}{s^2 - 1} - \frac{1}{s^2} + \frac{1}{s - 1} \end{aligned}$$

Taking the inverse Laplace transform L^{-1} ,

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \sinh t - t + e^t \\ &= \frac{3}{2}e^t - \frac{1}{2}e^{-t} - t. \end{aligned}$$

■

3.5 Heaviside Function (Unit Step Function)

Define

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t \leq 0 \\ 1, & t > 0 \end{cases}$$

So, for any $a > 0$,

$$u_a(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t \leq a \\ 1, & t > a \end{cases}$$

$$= u(t - a).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore L(u(t - a)) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} u(t - a) dt \\ &= \int_a^\infty e^{-st} dt \\ &= \frac{e^{-as}}{s}. \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$\tilde{f}(t) = f(t - a)u(t - a) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t \leq a \\ f(t - a) & \text{if } t > a \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(\tilde{f})(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \tilde{f}(t) dt \\ &= \int_a^\infty e^{-st} f(t - a) dt \\ &= e^{-as} \int_a^\infty e^{-s(t-a)} f(t - a) dt \\ &= e^{-as} \int_0^\infty e^{-s\tau} f(\tau) d\tau \\ &= e^{-as} L(f)(s) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore L(f(t - a)u(t - a)) = e^{-as} L(f).$$

Hat Function:

For $0 \leq a < b$,

$$H(t) := \begin{cases} 1, & a < t < b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

i.e.

$$H(t) = u(t - a) - u(t - b).$$

Example 16. Let

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 2 & , \quad 0 < t < 1 \\ \frac{t^2}{2} & , \quad 1 < t < \frac{\pi}{2} \\ \cos t & , \quad t > \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases} .$$

Find $L(f)(s)$.

Solution First we express $f(t)$ in terms of the Heaviside function.

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= \begin{cases} 2 & , \quad 0 < t < 1 \\ \frac{t^2}{2} & , \quad 1 < t < \frac{\pi}{2} \\ \cos t & , \quad t > \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases} \\ &= 2[1 - u(t - 1)] + \frac{t^2}{2} [u(t - 1) - u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)] + \cos t u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ \therefore L(f)(s) &= 2(L(1) - L(u(t - 1))) + \frac{1}{2}L(t^2 u(t - 1)) - \frac{1}{2}L\left(t^2 u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) \\ &\quad + L\left(\cos t u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} t^2 u(t - 1) &= [(t - 1) + 1]^2 u(t - 1) \\ &= (t - 1)^2 u(t - 1) + 2(t - 1)u(t - 1) + u(t - 1) \\ \therefore L(t^2 u(t - 1)) &= L((t - 1)^2 u(t - 1)) + 2L((t - 1)u(t - 1)) + L(u(t - 1)) \\ &= e^{-s} L(t^2) + 2e^{-s} L(t) + \frac{e^{-s}}{s} \\ &= e^{-s} \frac{2}{s^3} + 2e^{-s} \frac{1}{s^2} + \frac{e^{-s}}{s} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} t^2 u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= \left[\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \frac{\pi}{2}\right]^2 u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ &= \left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \pi\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \frac{\pi^2}{4} u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ \therefore L\left(t^2 u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) &= e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}s} \frac{2}{s^3} + \pi e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}s} \frac{1}{s^2} + \frac{\pi^2}{4} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}s} \frac{1}{s} \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned}
\cos t u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - t\right) u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\
&= -\sin\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\
\therefore L\left(\cos t u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) &= -L\left(\sin\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) u\left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) \\
&= -e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}s} L(\sin t)(s) \\
&= -e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}s} \frac{1}{s^2 + 1}.
\end{aligned}$$

■

3.6 Dirac Delta Function

For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let

$$f_k(t - a) = \begin{cases} k & , \quad a \leq t \leq a + \frac{1}{k} \\ 0 & , \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that

$$\int_0^\infty f_k(t - a) dt = 1 \quad \forall k.$$

Define the Dirac-delta function as

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta(t - a) &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(t - a) \\
&= \begin{cases} \infty & , \quad t = a \\ 0 & , \quad t \neq a \end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$

Properties:

1. $\int_0^\infty \delta(t - a) dt = 1.$

2. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
f_k(t-a) &= \begin{cases} k & , \quad a \leq t \leq a + \frac{1}{k} \\ 0 & , \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
&= k \left[u(t-a) - u\left(t - \left(a + \frac{1}{k}\right)\right) \right] \\
\therefore L(f_k(t-a)) &= k \left[L(u(t-a)) - L\left(u\left(t - \left(a + \frac{1}{k}\right)\right)\right) \right] \\
&= k \left[\frac{e^{-as}}{s} - \frac{e^{-(a+\frac{1}{k})s}}{s} \right] \\
&= e^{-as} \left[\frac{1 - e^{-\frac{s}{k}}}{\frac{s}{k}} \right] \\
\therefore L(\delta(t-a)) &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} L(f_k(t-a)) \\
&= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} e^{-as} \left[\frac{1 - e^{-\frac{s}{k}}}{\frac{s}{k}} \right] \\
&= e^{-as} \\
\therefore L(\delta(t-a)) &= e^{-as}.
\end{aligned}$$

Example 17. Solve the IVP:

$$y'' + 3y' + 2y = \delta(t-1), \quad y(0) = 0, y'(0) = 0.$$

Solution Taking the Laplace transform, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
L(y'') + 3L(y') + 2L(y) &= L(\delta(t-1)) \\
\implies [s^2Y(s) - sy(0) - y'(0)] + 3[sY(s) - y(0)] + 2Y(s) &= e^{-s} \\
\implies (s^2 + 3s + 2)Y(s) &= e^{-s} \\
\implies Y(s) &= e^{-s} \cdot \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} \\
&= \frac{e^{-s}}{s+1} - \frac{e^{-s}}{s+2} \\
\implies y(t) &= L^{-1} \left[\frac{e^{-s}}{s+1} \right] - L^{-1} \left[\frac{e^{-s}}{s+2} \right] \\
&= L^{-1}[e^{-s}L(e^{-t})(s)] - L^{-1}[e^{-s}L(e^{-2t})(s)] \\
&= e^{-(t-1)}u(t-1) - e^{-2(t-1)}u(t-1)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore y(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & , t < 1 \\ e^{-(t-1)} - e^{-2(t-1)} & , t > 1 \end{cases}$$

■

3.7 Convolution

Question: Is $L(fg) = L(f)L(g)$?

Example 18. Let $f = 1$; $g = 1$, then $L(f) = \frac{1}{s} = L(g)$. Also, $L(fg) = L(1) = \frac{1}{s}$,

$$\therefore L(fg) \neq L(f)L(g).$$

Example 19. Let $f = e^t$; $g = 1$, then $L(f) = \frac{1}{s-1}$; $L(g) = \frac{1}{s}$, but $L(fg) = L(e^t) = \frac{1}{s-1} \neq L(f)L(g)$.

If $L^{-1}(F(s)) = f(t)$ & $L^{-1}(G(s)) = g(t)$, then we have seen by the above examples that $L^{-1}(F(s)G(s)) \neq f(t)g(t)$. Let

$$F(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-s\tau} f(\tau) d\tau$$

$$G(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-su} g(u) du$$

Put $u = t - \tau$, then $du = dt$.

$$\implies G(s) = \int_\tau^\infty e^{-s(t-\tau)} g(t - \tau) dt.$$

Multiplying, we get

$$\begin{aligned} F(s)G(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-s\tau} f(\tau) d\tau \int_\tau^\infty e^{-s(t-\tau)} g(t - \tau) dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty \left(e^{-s\tau} f(\tau) e^{s\tau} \int_\tau^\infty e^{-st} g(t - \tau) dt \right) d\tau \\ &= \int_0^\infty f(\tau) \int_\tau^\infty e^{-st} g(t - \tau) dt d\tau \end{aligned} \tag{*}$$

This is a double integral over the region R given below :

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \{(t, \tau) : \tau \leq t < \infty, 0 < \tau < \infty\} \\ &= \{(t, \tau) : 0 \leq \tau \leq t, 0 \leq t < \infty\} \end{aligned}$$

Changing the order of integrals in (*), we get

$$\begin{aligned} F(s)G(s) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \left(\int_0^t f(\tau)g(t-\tau)d\tau \right) dt \\ &= L((f * g)(t))(s), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$(f * g)(t) := \int_0^t f(\tau)g(t-\tau)d\tau.$$

Definition 4.

$$(f * g)(t) := \int_0^t f(\tau)g(t-\tau)d\tau$$

is called the convolution of f and g .

Exercise 2. Use the above formula for $f * g$ and show that $L(f * g) = L(f)L(g)$. Hence,

$$L^{-1}(F(s)G(s)) = L^{-1}(F(s)) * L^{-1}(G(s)).$$

Example 20. Find $L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{(s^2+\omega^2)^2}\right)$.

Solution We know that $L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{s^2+\omega^2}\right) = \frac{1}{\omega} \sin(\omega t)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{(s^2+\omega^2)^2}\right) &= \frac{1}{\omega} \sin(\omega t) * \frac{1}{\omega} \sin(\omega t) \\ &= \frac{1}{\omega^2} \int_0^t \sin(\omega\tau) \sin \omega(t-\tau)d\tau \\ &= \frac{1}{2\omega^2} \int_0^t [\cos(2\omega\tau - \omega t) - \cos(\omega t)]d\tau \\ \implies L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{(s^2+\omega^2)^2}\right) &= \frac{1}{2\omega^3} [\sin(\omega t) - \omega t \cos(\omega t)]. \end{aligned}$$

■

Properties of Convolution:

1. $f * g = g * f.$

Proof. $(f * g)(t) = \int_0^t f(\tau)g(t - \tau)d\tau.$

Put $t - \tau = u \implies \tau = t - u \implies d\tau = -du$, and when $\tau = 0$, $u = t$; when $\tau = t$, $u = 0$,

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore (f * g)(t) &= \int_t^0 f(t - u)g(u)(-du) \\ &= \int_0^t g(u)f(t - u)du \\ &= (g * f)(t).\end{aligned}$$

□

2. $f * (g + h) = f * g + f * h.$

3. $(f * g) * h = f * (g * h).$

4. $f * 0 = 0$, where 0 denotes the zero function.

5. $f * 1 \neq f$ (for example let $f(t) = t$).

6. $(f * f)(t)$ need not be a non-negative function. Let $f(t) = \sin t$, then

$$(f * f)(t) = \frac{1}{2}[\sin t - t \cos t].$$

Example 21. Solve $y'' + 3y' + 2y = r(t)$, $y(0) = 0$, $y'(0) = 0$, where

$$r(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & , \quad 1 < t < 2 \\ 0 & , \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Solution Method 1: Observe that $r(t) = u(t - 1) - u(t - 2)$. Take the Laplace transform and find $Y(s)$. Then take the inverse Laplace transform

to get $y(t)$.

Method 2: (Using convolution) Taking the Laplace transform, we get

$$\begin{aligned} L(y'') + 3L(y') + 2L(y) &= L(r) \\ \implies [s^2Y(s) - sy(0) - y'(0)] + 3[sY(s) - y(0)] + 2Y(s) &= R(s) \\ \implies (s^2 + 3s + 2)Y(s) &= R(s) \\ \implies Y(s) &= \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} \cdot R(s) \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} = \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2} = L(e^{-t} - e^{-2t}).$$

Taking the inverse Laplace transform, we get

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= (r * q)(t); \quad \text{where } q(t) = e^{-t} - e^{-2t}, \\ &= \int_0^t r(\tau)q(t-\tau)d\tau \end{aligned}$$

For $0 < t < 1$, $r(t) = 0$,

$$\therefore y(t) = \int_0^t 0 \cdot q(t-\tau)d\tau = 0.$$

For $1 < t < 2$,

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \int_1^t 1 \cdot \left(e^{-(t-\tau)} - e^{-2(t-\tau)} \right) d\tau \\ &= \frac{1}{2} - e^{-(t-1)} + \frac{1}{2}e^{-2(t-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

For $t > 2$,

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \int_1^2 1 \cdot \left(e^{-(t-\tau)} - e^{-2(t-\tau)} \right) d\tau \\ &= e^{-(t-2)} - \frac{e^{-2(t-2)}}{2} - e^{-(t-1)} + \frac{e^{-2(t-1)}}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

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