

THE CAUCHY–EULER EQUATION

This is an equation of the form

$$a_0 x^n \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_1 x^{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \cdots + a_{n-1} x \frac{dy}{dx} + a_n y = F(x),$$

where $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n$ are constants. Note the characteristic feature of this equation: each term in the left member is a constant multiple of an expression of the form

$$x^k \frac{d^k y}{dx^k}.$$

THEOREM 1.

The transformation $x = e^t$ reduces the equation

$$a_0 x^n \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_1 x^{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \cdots + a_{n-1} x \frac{dy}{dx} + a_n y = F(x)$$

to a linear differential equation with constant coefficients.

We shall prove this theorem for the case of the *second-order* Cauchy–Euler differential equation

$$a_0 x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + a_1 x \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y = F(x).$$

The proof in the general n th-order case proceeds in a similar fashion. Letting $x = e^t$, assuming $x > 0$, we have $t = \ln x$. Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} &= \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right) + \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = \frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \frac{dt}{dx} \right) - \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \frac{1}{x} \right) - \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{x^2} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$x \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt}.$$

Substituting into equation we obtain

$$a_0 \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right) + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_2 y = F(e^t)$$

or

$$A_0 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + A_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + A_2 y = G(t),$$

where

$$A_0 = a_0, \quad A_1 = a_1 - a_0, \quad A_2 = a_2, \quad G(t) = F(e^t).$$

This is a second-order linear differential equation with *constant* coefficients, which was what we wished to show.

Example .

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x^3.$$

Let $x = e^t$. Then, assuming $x > 0$, we have $t = \ln x$, and

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dt},$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \frac{dt}{dx} \right) - \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{x^2} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right).$$

Thus

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} - 2 \frac{dy}{dt} + 2y = e^{3t}$$

or

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - 3 \frac{dy}{dt} + 2y = e^{3t}.$$

The complementary function of this equation is $y_c = c_1 e^t + c_2 e^{2t}$. We find a particular integral by the method of undetermined coefficients. We assume $y_p = A e^{3t}$. Then $y'_p = 3A e^{3t}$, $y''_p = 9A e^{3t}$, and substituting into

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - 3 \frac{dy}{dt} + 2y = e^{3t}$$

we obtain

$$2A e^{3t} = e^{3t}.$$

Thus $A = \frac{1}{2}$ and we have $y_p = \frac{1}{2} e^{3t}$. The general solution is

$$y = c_1 e^t + c_2 e^{2t} + \frac{1}{2} e^{3t}.$$

But we are not yet finished! We must return to the original independent variable x . Since $e^t = x$, we find

$$y = c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \frac{1}{2} x^3.$$

This is the general solution.

Example.

$$x^3 \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} - 4x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 8x \frac{dy}{dx} - 8y = 4 \ln x.$$

Assuming $x > 0$, we let $x = e^t$. Then $t = \ln x$, and

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dt},$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right)$$

Now we must consider $\frac{d^3 y}{dx^3}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} &= \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right) - \frac{2}{x^3} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{x^2} \left(\frac{d^3 y}{dt^3} \frac{dt}{dx} - \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \frac{dt}{dx} \right) - \frac{2}{x^3} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{x^3} \left(\frac{d^3 y}{dt^3} - \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \right) - \frac{2}{x^3} \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{x^3} \left(\frac{d^3 y}{dt^3} - 3 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dt} \right).
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, substituting into equation , we obtain

$$\left(\frac{d^3 y}{dt^3} - 3 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dt} \right) - 4 \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} - \frac{dy}{dt} \right) + 8 \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right) - 8y = 4t$$

or

$$\frac{d^3 y}{dt^3} - 7 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + 14 \frac{dy}{dt} - 8y = 4t.$$

The complementary function of the transformed equation is

$$y_c = c_1 e^t + c_2 e^{2t} + c_3 e^{4t}.$$

We proceed to obtain a particular integral by the method of undetermined coefficients. We assume $y_p = At + B$. Then $y_p' = A$, $y_p'' = y_p''' = 0$. Substituting into equation, we find

$$14A - 8At - 8B = 4t.$$

Thus

$$-8A = 4, \quad 14A - 8B = 0,$$

and so $A = -\frac{1}{2}$, $B = -\frac{7}{8}$. Thus

$$y = c_1 e^t + c_2 e^{2t} + c_3 e^{4t} - \frac{1}{2}t - \frac{7}{8},$$

and so the general solution of equation is

$$y = c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^4 - \frac{1}{2} \ln x - \frac{7}{8}.$$

The Laplace Transform

DEFINITION

Let f be a real-valued function of the real variable t , defined for $t > 0$. Let s be a variable that we shall assume to be real, and consider the function F defined by

$$F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt, \quad (1)$$

for all values of s for which this integral exists. The function F defined by the integral (1) is called the Laplace transform of the function f . We shall denote the Laplace transform F of f by $\mathcal{L}\{f\}$ and shall denote $F(s)$ by $\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\}$.

In order to be certain that the integral (1) does exist for some range of values of s , we must impose suitable restrictions upon the function f under consideration. We shall do this shortly; however, first we shall directly determine the Laplace transforms of a few simple functions.

Example.

Consider the function f defined by

$$f(t) = 1, \quad \text{for } t > 0.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\{1\} &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} \cdot 1 dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R e^{-st} \cdot 1 dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{-e^{-st}}{s} \right]_0^R \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{s} - \frac{e^{-sR}}{s} \right] = \frac{1}{s} \end{aligned}$$

for all $s > 0$. Thus we have

$$\mathcal{L}\{1\} = \frac{1}{s} \quad (s > 0). \quad (2)$$

Example.

Consider the function f defined by

$$f(t) = t, \quad \text{for } t > 0.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\{t\} &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} \cdot t \, dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R e^{-st} \cdot t \, dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{e^{-st}}{s^2} (st + 1) \right]_0^R \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{s^2} - \frac{e^{-sR}}{s^2} (sR + 1) \right] = \frac{1}{s^2} \end{aligned}$$

for all $s > 0$. Thus

$$\mathcal{L}\{t\} = \frac{1}{s^2} \quad (s > 0). \quad (3)$$

Example.

Consider the function f defined by

$$f(t) = e^{at}, \quad \text{for } t > 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\{e^{at}\} &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} e^{at} \, dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R e^{(a-s)t} \, dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{e^{(a-s)t}}{a-s} \right]_0^R \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{e^{(a-s)R}}{a-s} - \frac{1}{a-s} \right] = -\frac{1}{a-s} = \frac{1}{s-a} \quad \text{for all } s > a. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{at}\} = \frac{1}{s-a} \quad (s > a). \quad (4)$$

Example.

Consider the function f defined by

$$f(t) = \sin bt \quad \text{for } t > 0.$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin bt\} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} \cdot \sin bt \, dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R e^{-st} \cdot \sin bt \, dt$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{e^{-st}}{s^2 + b^2} (s \sin bt + b \cos bt) \right]_0^R \\
&= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{b}{s^2 + b^2} - \frac{e^{-sR}}{s^2 + b^2} (s \sin bR + b \cos bR) \right] \\
&= \frac{b}{s^2 + b^2} \quad \text{for all } s > 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin bt\} = \frac{b}{s^2 + b^2} \quad (s > 0). \quad (5)$$

Example .

Consider the function f defined by

$$f(t) = \cos bt \quad \text{for } t > 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}\{\cos bt\} &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \cdot \cos bt \, dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R e^{-st} \cos bt \, dt \\
&= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{e^{-st}}{s^2 + b^2} (-s \cos bt + b \sin bt) \right]_0^R \\
&= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{e^{-sR}}{s^2 + b^2} (-s \cos bR + b \sin bR) + \frac{s}{s^2 + b^2} \right] \\
&= \frac{s}{s^2 + b^2} \quad \text{for all } s > 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{L}\{\cos bt\} = \frac{s}{s^2 + b^2} \quad (s > 0). \quad (6)$$

In each of the above examples we have seen directly that the integral (1) actually does exist for some range of values of s . We shall now determine a class of functions f for which this is always the case. To do so we first consider certain properties of functions.

DEFINITION

A function f is said to be piecewise continuous (or sectionally continuous) on a finite interval $a \leq t \leq b$ if this interval can be divided into a finite number of subintervals such that (1) f is continuous in the interior of each of these subintervals, and (2) $f(t)$ approaches finite limits as t approaches either endpoint of each of the subintervals from its interior.

Suppose f is piecewise continuous on $a \leq t \leq b$, and t_0 , $a < t_0 < b$, is an endpoint of one of the subintervals of the above definition. Then the finite limit approached by $f(t)$ as t approaches t_0 from the left (that is, through smaller values of t) is called the *left-hand limit* of $f(t)$ as t approaches t_0 , denoted by $\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0^-} f(t)$ or by $f(t_0 -)$. In like manner, the finite limit approached by $f(t)$ as t approaches t_0 from the right (through larger values) is called the *right-hand limit* of $f(t)$ as t approaches t_0 , denoted by $\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0^+} f(t)$ or $f(t_0 +)$. We emphasize that at such a point t_0 , both $f(t_0 -)$ and $f(t_0 +)$ are finite but they are not in general equal.

We point out that if f is continuous on $a \leq t \leq b$ it is necessarily piecewise continuous on this interval. Also, we note that if f is piecewise continuous on $a \leq t \leq b$, then f is integrable on $a \leq t \leq b$.

Example.

Consider the function f defined by

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} -1, & 0 < t < 2, \\ 1, & t > 2. \end{cases}$$

f is piecewise continuous on every finite interval $0 \leq t \leq b$, for every positive number b . At $t = 2$, we have

$$f(2-) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^-} f(t) = -1,$$

$$f(2+) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} f(t) = +1.$$

The graph of f is shown in Figure 1.

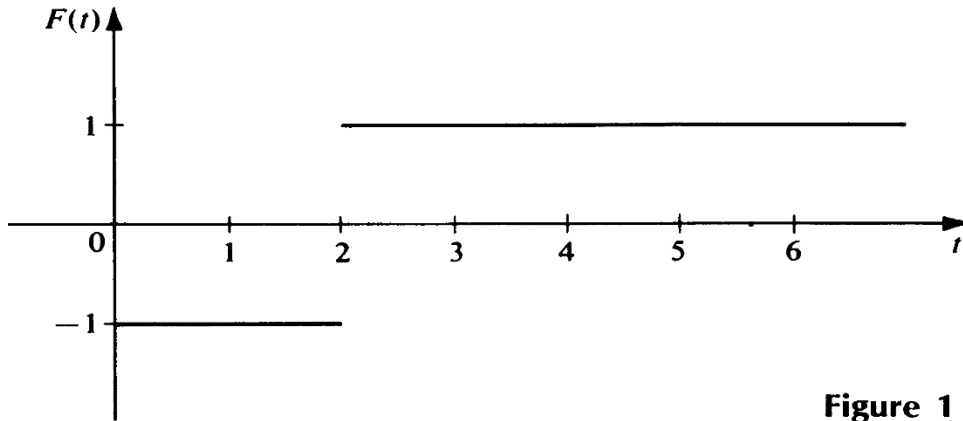


Figure 1

DEFINITION

A function f is said to be of exponential order if there exists a constant α and positive constants t_0 and M such that

$$e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)| < M \quad (7)$$

for all $t > t_0$ at which $f(t)$ is defined. More explicitly, if f is of exponential order corresponding to some definite constant α in (7), then we say that f is of exponential order $e^{\alpha t}$.

In other words, we say that f is of exponential order if a constant α exists such that the product $e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)|$ is bounded for all sufficiently large values of t . From (7) we have

$$|f(t)| < M e^{\alpha t} \quad (8)$$

for all $t > t_0$ at which $f(t)$ is defined. Thus if f is of exponential order and the values $f(t)$ of f become infinite as $t \rightarrow \infty$, these values cannot become infinite more rapidly than a multiple M of the corresponding values $e^{\alpha t}$ of some exponential function. We note that if f is of exponential order $e^{\alpha t}$, then f is also of exponential order $e^{\beta t}$ for any $\beta > \alpha$.

Example.

The function f such that $f(t) = e^{at} \sin bt$ is of exponential order, with the constant $\alpha = a$. For we then have

$$e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)| = e^{-at} e^{at} |\sin bt| = |\sin bt|,$$

which is bounded for all t .

Example.

Consider the function f such that $f(t) = t^n$, where $n > 0$. Then $e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)|$ is $e^{-\alpha t} t^n$. For any $\alpha > 0$, $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{-\alpha t} t^n = 0$. Thus there exists $M > 0$ and $t_0 > 0$ such that

$$e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)| = e^{-\alpha t} t^n < M$$

for $t > t_0$. Hence $f(t) = t^n$ is of exponential order, with the constant α equal to any positive number.

Example.

The function f such that $f(t) = e^{t^2}$ is *not* of exponential order, for in this case $e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)|$ is $e^{t^2 - \alpha t}$ and this becomes unbounded as $t \rightarrow \infty$, no matter what is the value of α .

We shall now proceed to obtain a theorem giving conditions on f that are sufficient for the integral (1) to exist. To obtain the desired result we shall need the following two theorems from advanced calculus, which we state without proof.

THEOREM A Comparison Test for Improper Integrals**Hypothesis**

1. Let g and G be real functions such that

$$0 \leq g(t) \leq G(t) \quad \text{on} \quad a \leq t < \infty.$$

2. Suppose $\int_a^\infty G(t) dt$ exists.

3. Suppose g is integrable on every finite closed subinterval of $a \leq t < \infty$.

Conclusion. Then $\int_a^\infty g(t) dt$ exists.

THEOREM B**Hypothesis**

1. Suppose the real function g is integrable on every finite closed subinterval of $a \leq t \leq \infty$.

2. Suppose $\int_a^\infty |g(t)| dt$ exists.

Conclusion. Then $\int_a^\infty g(t) dt$ exists.

We now state and prove an existence theorem for Laplace transforms.

THEOREM 1.

Hypothesis. Let f be a real function that has the following properties:

1. f is piecewise continuous in every finite closed interval $0 \leq t \leq b$ ($b > 0$).
2. f is of exponential order; that is, there exists α , $M > 0$, and $t_0 > 0$ such that

$$e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)| < M \quad \text{for } t > t_0.$$

Conclusion. The Laplace transform

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

of f exists for $s > \alpha$.

Proof. We have

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt = \int_0^{t_0} e^{-st} f(t) dt + \int_{t_0}^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt.$$

By Hypothesis 1, the first integral of the right member exists. By Hypothesis 2,

$$e^{-st} |f(t)| < e^{-st} M e^{\alpha t} = M e^{-(s-\alpha)t}$$

for $t > t_0$. Also

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{t_0}^{\infty} M e^{-(s-\alpha)t} dt &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{t_0}^R M e^{-(s-\alpha)t} dt = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{M e^{-(s-\alpha)t}}{s-\alpha} \right]_{t_0}^R \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{M}{s-\alpha} \right] [e^{-(s-\alpha)t_0} - e^{-(s-\alpha)R}] \\ &= \left[\frac{M}{s-\alpha} \right] e^{-(s-\alpha)t_0} \quad \text{if } s > \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} M e^{-(s-\alpha)t} dt \quad \text{exists for } s > \alpha.$$

Finally, by Hypothesis 1, $e^{-st} |f(t)|$ is integrable on every finite closed subinterval of $t_0 \leq t < \infty$. Thus, applying Theorem A with $g(t) = e^{-st} |f(t)|$ and $G(t) = M e^{-(s-\alpha)t}$, we see that

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} e^{-st} |f(t)| dt \quad \text{exists if } s > \alpha.$$

In other words,

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} |e^{-st} f(t)| dt \quad \text{exists if } s > \alpha,$$

and so by Theorem B

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

also exists if $s > \alpha$. Thus the Laplace transform of f exists for $s > \alpha$. *Q.E.D.*

Let us look back at this proof for a moment. Actually we showed that if f satisfies the hypotheses stated, then

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} e^{-st} |f(t)| dt \quad \text{exists if } s > \alpha.$$

Further, Hypothesis 1 shows that

$$\int_0^{t_0} e^{-st} |f(t)| dt \quad \text{exists.}$$

Thus

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} |f(t)| dt \quad \text{exists if } s > \alpha.$$

In other words, if f satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1, then not only does $\mathcal{L}\{f\}$ exist for $s > \alpha$, but also $\mathcal{L}\{|f|\}$ exists for $s > \alpha$. That is,

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt \quad \text{is absolutely convergent for } s > \alpha.$$

We point out that the conditions on f described in the hypothesis of Theorem 1 are not necessary for the existence of $\mathcal{L}\{f\}$. In other words, there exist functions f that do *not* satisfy the hypotheses of Theorem 1, but for which $\mathcal{L}\{f\}$ exists. For instance, suppose we replace Hypothesis 1 by the following less restrictive condition. Let us

suppose that f is piecewise continuous in every finite closed interval $a \leq t \leq b$, where $a > 0$, and is such that $|t^n f(t)|$ remains bounded as $t \rightarrow 0^+$ for some number n , where $0 < n < 1$. Then, provided Hypothesis 2 remains satisfied, it can be shown that $\mathcal{L}\{f\}$ still exists. Thus for example, if $f(t) = t^{-1/3}$, $t > 0$, $\mathcal{L}\{f\}$ exists. For although f does not satisfy the hypothesis of Theorem 1 [$f(t) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow 0^+$], it does satisfy the less restrictive requirement stated above (take $n = \frac{2}{3}$), and f is of exponential order.

THEOREM 2. The Linear Property

Let f_1 and f_2 be functions whose Laplace transforms exist, and let c_1 and c_2 be constants. Then

$$\mathcal{L}\{c_1 f_1(t) + c_2 f_2(t)\} = c_1 \mathcal{L}\{f_1(t)\} + c_2 \mathcal{L}\{f_2(t)\}. \quad (9)$$

This follows directly from the definition.

Example.

Use Theorem 2 to find $\mathcal{L}\{\sin^2 at\}$. Since $\sin^2 at = (1 - \cos 2at)/2$, we have

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin^2 at\} = \mathcal{L}\{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos 2at\}.$$

By Theorem 2,

$$\mathcal{L}\{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos 2at\} = \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L}\{1\} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L}\{\cos 2at\}.$$

By (2), $\mathcal{L}\{1\} = 1/s$, and by (6), $\mathcal{L}\{\cos 2at\} = s/(s^2 + 4a^2)$. Thus

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin^2 at\} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{s}{s^2 + 4a^2} = \frac{2a^2}{s(s^2 + 4a^2)}. \quad (10)$$

THEOREM 3.

Hypothesis

1. Let f be a real function that is continuous for $t \geq 0$ and of exponential order $e^{\alpha t}$.
2. Let f' (the derivative of f) be piecewise continuous in every finite closed interval $0 \leq t \leq b$.

Conclusion. Then $\mathcal{L}\{f'\}$ exists for $s > \alpha$; and

$$\mathcal{L}\{f'(t)\} = s\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} - f(0). \quad (11)$$

Proof. By definition of the Laplace transform,

$$\mathcal{L}\{f'(t)\} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R e^{-st} f'(t) dt,$$

provided this limit exists. In any closed interval $0 \leq t \leq R$, $f'(t)$ has at most a finite number of discontinuities; denote these by t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n , where

$$0 \leq t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n \leq R.$$

Then we may write

$$\int_0^R e^{-st} f'(t) dt = \int_0^{t_1} e^{-st} f'(t) dt + \int_{t_1}^{t_2} e^{-st} f'(t) dt + \dots + \int_{t_n}^R e^{-st} f'(t) dt.$$

Now the integrand of each of the integrals on the right is continuous. We may therefore integrate each by parts. Doing so, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^R e^{-st} f'(t) dt &= \left[e^{-st} f(t) \right]_0^{t_1^-} + s \int_0^{t_1} e^{-st} f(t) dt + \left[e^{-st} f(t) \right]_{t_1^+}^{t_2^-} \\ &\quad + s \int_{t_1}^{t_2} e^{-st} f(t) dt + \dots + \left[e^{-st} f(t) \right]_{t_n^+}^{R^-} + s \int_{t_n}^R e^{-st} f(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

By Hypothesis 1, f is continuous for $t \geq 0$. Thus

$$f(t_1^-) = f(t_1^+), f(t_2^-) = f(t_2^+), \dots, f(t_n^-) = f(t_n^+).$$

Thus all of the integrated “pieces” add out, except for $e^{-st} f(t)|_{t=0}$ and $e^{-st} f(t)|_{t=R^-}$, and there remains only

$$\int_0^R e^{-st} f'(t) dt = -f(0) + e^{-sR} f(R) + s \int_0^R e^{-st} f(t) dt.$$

But by Hypothesis 1 f is of exponential order $e^{\alpha t}$. Thus there exists $M > 0$ and $t_0 > 0$ such that $e^{-\alpha t} |f(t)| < M$ for $t > t_0$. Thus $|e^{-sR} f(R)| < M e^{-(s-\alpha)R}$ for $R > t_0$. Thus if $s > \alpha$,

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} e^{-sR} f(R) = 0.$$

Further,

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

Thus, we have

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R e^{-st} f'(t) dt = -f(0) + s\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\},$$

and so $\mathcal{L}\{f'(t)\}$ exists for $s > \alpha$ and is given by (11).

Q.E.D

Example.

Consider the function defined by $f(t) = \sin^2 at$. This function satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 3. Since $f'(t) = 2a \sin at \cos at$ and $f(0) = 0$, Equation (11) gives

$$\mathcal{L}\{2a \sin at \cos at\} = s\mathcal{L}\{\sin^2 at\}.$$

By (10),

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin^2 at\} = \frac{2a^2}{s(s^2 + 4a^2)}.$$

Thus,

$$\mathcal{L}\{2a \sin at \cos at\} = \frac{2a^2}{s^2 + 4a^2}.$$

Since $2a \sin at \cos at = a \sin 2at$, we also have

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin 2at\} = \frac{2a}{s^2 + 4a^2}.$$

THEOREM 4.

Hypothesis

1. Let f be a real function having a continuous $(n - 1)$ st derivative $f^{(n-1)}$ (and hence $f, f', \dots, f^{(n-2)}$ are also continuous) for $t \geq 0$; and assume that $f, f', \dots, f^{(n-1)}$ are all of exponential order e^{at} .

2. Suppose $f^{(n)}$ is piecewise continuous in every finite closed interval $0 \leq t \leq b$.

Conclusion. $\mathcal{L}\{f^{(n)}\}$ exists for $s > \alpha$ and

$$\mathcal{L}\{f^{(n)}(t)\} = s^n \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} - s^{n-1}f(0) - s^{n-2}f'(0) - s^{n-3}f''(0) - \dots - f^{(n-1)}(0). \quad (12)$$

Example.

We apply Theorem 4, with $n = 2$, to find $\mathcal{L}\{\sin bt\}$, which we have already found directly and given by (5). Clearly the function f defined by $f(t) = \sin bt$ satisfies the hypotheses of the theorem with $\alpha = 0$. For $n = 2$, Equation (12) becomes

$$\mathcal{L}\{f''(t)\} = s^2 \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} - sf(0) - f'(0). \quad (13)$$

We have $f'(t) = b \cos bt$, $f''(t) = -b^2 \sin bt$, $f(0) = 0$, $f'(0) = b$. Substituting into Equation (13) we find

$$\mathcal{L}\{-b^2 \sin bt\} = s^2 \mathcal{L}\{\sin bt\} - b,$$

and so

$$(s^2 + b^2) \mathcal{L}\{\sin bt\} = b.$$

Thus,

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin bt\} = \frac{b}{s^2 + b^2} \quad (s > 0),$$

which is the result (5), already found directly.