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### Lecture 13 - Heaviside and Delta functions

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- Introductory comments
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Summary

## Discontinuous and impulsive sources



- We have seen that Laplace transform methods are useful for solving DEs: we take the Laplace transform (i.e. integral) of the IVP and BCs are straightforwardly implemented.
- Today: want to consider <u>discontinuous</u> or "impulsive" sources.
- Discontinuous functions are most useful to model when an effect suddenly starts or stops; electrical current controlled by a switch.
- By "impulsive" we mean a "spiky" source that takes a non-zero value for an infinitely small amount of the independent variable (e.g. time), and yet still has a finite overall effect.
- Impulsive behaviour is most useful for "impact" type problems; think of an elastic collision where two bodies collide, but the force acts on each "instantaneously".

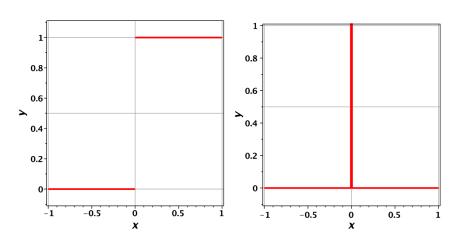


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# Discontinuous and impulsive sources





#### The Heaviside function



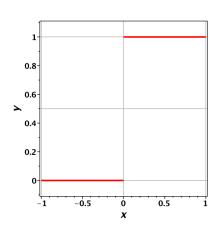
#### The **Heaviside function**

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ 1, & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

is the simplest discontinuous function.

More generically:

$$H(x-a) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < a \\ 1, & x > a \end{cases}$$



### Comments about Heaviside function



 Note that summing Heaviside functions can give switching on and off behaviour; for example,

$$S(x) = H(x+1) - H(x-1) = \begin{cases} 1, & -1 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

gives the "square wave".

• Equally, if you have an arbitrary function f(x) that you want to "switch on" at x = a (and keep it on for  $x \ge a$ ) you can just multiply f by a Heaviside function:

$$g(x) = f(x)H(x - a)$$

• "Switching off" at x = a (and beyond) uses the same trick:

$$h(x) = f(x)[1 - H(x - a)]$$

#### Dirac $\delta$ -functions



The Dirac  $\delta$ -function is not a function, but **a functional**. We have:

1

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-c)f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = f(c),$$

2

$$\int_{a}^{b} \delta(x-c)f(x) dx = 0 \quad \text{if } c \notin (a,b),$$

which is sometimes loosely written as

$$\delta(x-c) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \neq c. \\ \infty & x = c. \end{cases}$$

Of course, we can have c = 0.

### Dirac $\delta$ -function as a limit



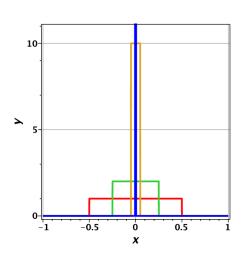
Loosely the  $\delta$  function can be thought of as a limit:

Area rectangle = 
$$\underline{\text{fixed}}$$

$$=\int\limits_{-\infty}^{\infty}\delta(x)f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x=f(0).$$

We are squeezing the rectangle along *x* and stretching it along the vertical direction while keeping its area fixed (see Fig.).

However, this procedure is **not** useful when manipulating  $\delta$ -functions in DEs.



## Laplace transform of Heaviside function



The Laplace transform of the Heaviside function H(x - a) is:

#### **Proof:**

$$\mathcal{L}\left[H(x-a)\right] = \int_{0}^{\infty} H(x-a)e^{-sx} dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{a} 0 \times e^{-sx} dx + \int_{a}^{\infty} 1 \times e^{-sx} dx$$

$$= \left[-\frac{e^{-sx}}{s}\right]_{a}^{\infty} \qquad \qquad \swarrow \lim_{x \to \infty} e^{-sx} = 0 \text{ if } \operatorname{Re}(s) > 0 \text{ otherwise LT not defined}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-as}}{s}, \qquad \text{if } \operatorname{Re}(s) > 0.$$

#### Second shift theorem



The **second** shift theorem is:

$$\mathcal{L}\left[f(x-a)H(x-a)\right] = e^{-as}\tilde{f}(s) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[e^{-as}\tilde{f}(s)\right] = f(x-a)H(x-a)$$

Alternatively, we can also formulate it as:

$$\mathcal{L}\left[f(x)H(x-a)\right] = e^{-as}\,\mathcal{L}\left[f(x+a)\right] \ \Leftrightarrow \ \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[e^{-as}\,\mathcal{L}\left[f(x+a)\right]\right] = f(x)H(x-a)$$

Like the first shift theorem, it is very useful to invert Laplace Transforms.

**Proof**: (of main version; *Exercise*: prove the alternative version similarly)

$$\mathcal{L}\left[H(x-a)f(x-a)\right] = \int_{0}^{\infty} H(x-a)f(x-a)e^{-sx} dx = \int_{x=a}^{\infty} f(x-a)e^{-sx} dx$$

Use the change of variables  $\tau = x - a$ , to get

$$=\int_{\tau=0}^{\tau=\infty} f(\tau)e^{-s(\tau+a)} d\tau$$

$$=e^{-as} \int_{0}^{\infty} f(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau = e^{-as} \tilde{f}(s).$$



**IVP:** 
$$y'' + y = H(x - 1);$$
  $y(0) = 0,$   $y'(0) = 1.$ 

Taking the Laplace Transform and rearranging terms gives

Now we <u>invert</u> this Laplace transform to get the solution  $y(x) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[\tilde{y}(s)]$ :

$$y(x) = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ \frac{1}{s^2 + 1} \right] + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ \frac{e^{-s}}{s(s^2 + 1)} \right] \checkmark \begin{cases} \mathcal{L} \left[ \sin(ax) \right] = \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2} \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2} \right] = \sin(ax) \\ \frac{e^{-s}}{s(s^2 + 1)} = \frac{e^{-s}}{s} - \frac{e^{-s}s}{s^2 + 1} \text{ (Partial Fractions: practice!!!} \end{cases}$$

$$= \sin(x) + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ \frac{e^{-s}}{s} \right] - \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ \frac{e^{-s}s}{s^2 + 1} \right] \checkmark \begin{cases} \mathcal{L} \left[ H(x - a) \right] = \frac{e^{-as}}{s^2 + 1} \\ \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ \frac{e^{-as}s}{s} \right] = H(x - a) \end{cases}$$

$$= \sin(x) + H(x - 1) \left[ 1 - \cos(x - 1) \right] \checkmark \begin{cases} \mathcal{L} \left[ \cos(ax) \right] = \frac{s}{s^2 + a^2} \\ \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ e^{-as} \tilde{s}(s) \right] = f(x - a) + H(x - a) \\ \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[ \frac{e^{-as}s}{s^2 + a^2} \right] = \cos(x - a) + H(x - a) \end{cases}$$

# Laplace Transform of $\delta$ -function



By the definition of the  $\delta$  function and the Laplace transform we have

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\delta(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a})\right] = \mathbf{e}^{-\mathbf{a}\,\mathbf{s}} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \text{one more to add to the known list of LT!}$$

This only works for a > 0.

**Proof:** Just apply the definition of LT to  $f(x) = \delta(x - a)$  to find:

$$\mathcal{L}[f(x)] = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-sx} f(x) dx \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}[\delta(x-a)] = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-sx} \delta(x-a) dx$$
$$= e^{-as},$$

where the final step uses the definition of the  $\delta$ -function but only holds if a > 0. Why?

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x-a)f(x)dx = f(a) \quad \Rightarrow \text{If } a > 0: \begin{cases} \int_{0}^{+\infty} \delta(x-a)f(x)dx = f(a) \\ \int_{-\infty}^{0} \delta(x-a)f(x)dx = 0 \end{cases}$$



A mass on a spring is struck by a hammer at times  $t = n\pi$ . Its motion follows:

**IVP:** 
$$\ddot{y} + y = \sum_{n} \delta(t - n\pi);$$
  $y(0) = 0,$   $\dot{y}(0) = 0.$ 

Taking the Laplace Transform and rearranging terms gives

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\ddot{y}\right] + \mathcal{L}\left[y\right] = \mathcal{L}\left[\sum_{n} \delta\left(t - n\pi\right)\right] \qquad \swarrow \begin{cases} \mathcal{L}\left[\ddot{y}(t)\right] = s^{2}\tilde{y}(s) - s\,y(0) - \dot{y}(0) \\ \mathcal{L}\left[y(t)\right] = \tilde{y}(s) \\ \text{LT is linear: } \mathcal{L}\left[\sum_{n} f_{n}(t)\right] = \sum_{n} \mathcal{L}\left[f_{n}(t)\right] \end{cases}$$

$$s^{2}\tilde{y}(s) + \tilde{y}(s) = \sum_{n} \mathcal{L}\left[\delta\left(t - n\pi\right)\right] \qquad \left(\swarrow \mathcal{L}\left[\delta(t - a)\right] = e^{-as}, \ a \equiv n\pi\right)$$

$$\tilde{y}(s) = \sum_{n} \frac{e^{-n\pi\,s}}{s^{2} + 1}$$

To invert, we use the second shift theorem:

$$y(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\tilde{y}(s)\right] = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\sum_{n} \frac{e^{-n\pi s}}{s^2 + 1}\right] = \sum_{n} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{e^{-n\pi s}}{s^2 + 1}\right]$$
$$y(t) = \sum_{n} H(t - n\pi)\sin(t - n\pi) \qquad \leftarrow \begin{cases} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[e^{-as}\tilde{t}(s)\right] = f(t - a)H(t - a)\\ \mathcal{L}\left[\sin(ax)\right] = \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2} \Rightarrow \sin(ax) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{a}{s^2 + a^2}\right] \end{cases}$$



A mass on a spring is struck by a hammer at times  $t = n\pi$ . Its motion follows:

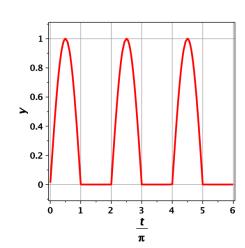
**IVP:** 
$$\ddot{y} + y = \sum_{n} \delta(t - n\pi), \quad y(0) = 0, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0.$$

Taking the Laplace Transform and rearranging terms gives in the end of the day:

$$\tilde{y}(s) = \sum_{n} \frac{e^{-n\pi s}}{s^2 + 1}$$

and the second shift theorem gives:

$$y(t) = \sum_{n} H(t - n\pi) \sin(t - n\pi).$$



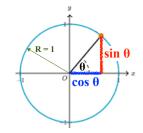
## Useful trigonometric identities in LT context



#### Review slide: check it as homework.

$$\cos(-x) = \cos(x),$$
  $\cos(x \pm 2\pi) = \cos(x),$   $\sin(-x) = -\sin(x),$   $\sin(x \pm 2\pi) = \sin(x),$   $\cos(x \pm \pi) = -\cos(x),$   $\cos\left(x \pm \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \mp\sin(x),$   $\sin(x \pm \pi) = -\sin(x),$   $\sin\left(x \pm \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \pm\cos(x).$ 

But you do not need to memorise them! ... instead keep in your mind that they might be useful/required and always use the trigonometric unit circle for the specific problem at hand.





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## Summary



- Complex source terms, especially discontinuous (or worse) ones, in DEs are most easily dealt with using Laplace transforms.
- Standard example for discontinuous functions: the Heaviside function.
- The Heaviside function appears in the second shift theorem, essential in inverting transforms containing exponentials.
- The  $\delta$ -function is not a function and must be treated with care.
- The  $\delta$ -function is useful in modelling impulsive behaviour.
- Add-ons to the List of Results:

$$\mathcal{L}[H(x-a)] = \frac{e^{-as}}{s};$$

$$\mathcal{L}[\delta(x-a)] = e^{-as};$$

$$\mathcal{L}[f(x-a)H(x-a)] = e^{-as}\tilde{f}(s) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathcal{L}[f(x)H(x-a)] = e^{-as}\mathcal{L}[f(x+a)]$$

$$\nwarrow 2^{nd} \text{ shift theorem.}$$

Be familiar with List of known LT Results in the **Formula Sheet**: your best friend on exam day but only if you practiced using it solving many examples!