# 7.6 Impulses and Delta Functions

## Introduction of delta function

## **Impulsive Force**

- Consider a force f(t) that acts only during a very short time interval  $a \leq t \leq b$ , with f(t) = 0 outside this interval.
- A typical example would be the **impulsive force** of a bat striking a ball---the impact is almost instantaneous.
- A quick surge of voltage (resulting from a lightning bolt, for instance) is an analogous electrical phenomenon.



• In such a situation it often happens that the principal effect of the force depends only on the value of the integral

$$p = \int_a^b f(t) \, dt$$

and does not depend otherwise on precisely how f(t) varies with time t.

- The number p is called the **impulse** of the force f(t) over the interval [a, b].
- In the case of a force f(t) that acts on a particle of mass m in linear motion, integration of Newton's law

$$f(t) = mv'(t) = \frac{d}{dt}[mv(t)]$$

yields

$$p=\int_a^b rac{d}{dt}[mv(t)]\;dt=mv(b)-mv(a).$$

- Thus the impulse of the force is equal to the change in momentum of the particle.
- We need know neither the precise function f(t) nor even the precise time interval during which it acts.

#### **Modeling Impulsive Forces**

- Our strategy for handling such a situation is to set up a reasonable mathematical model in which the unknown force f(t) is replaced with a simple and explicit force that has the same impulse.
- Suppose for simplicity that f(t) has impulse 1 and acts during some brief time interval beginning at time  $t = a \ge 0$ .
- Then we can select a fixed number  $\epsilon > 0$  that approximates the length of this time interval and replace f(t) with the specific function



• If  $b \ge a + \epsilon$ , then as the figure shows, the impulse of  $d_{a,\epsilon}$  over [a,b] is

$$p=\int_a^b d_{a,\epsilon}(t)\,dt=\int_a^{a+\epsilon}rac{1}{\epsilon}\,dt=1.$$

- Because the precise time interval during which the force acts seems unimportant, it is tempting to think of an **instantaneous impulse** that occurs precisely at the instant t = a.
- We might try to model such an instantaneous unit impulse by taking the limit as  $\epsilon o 0$ , thereby defining

$$\delta_a(t) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} d_{a,\epsilon}(t), \text{ where } a \ge 0.$$
 (1)

(1)

#### **Dirac Delta**

• If we could also take the limit under the integral sign in the equation

$$\int_0^\infty d_{a,\epsilon}(t) \, dt = 1,\tag{2}$$

then it would follow that

$$\int_0^\infty \delta_a(t) \, dt = 1. \tag{3}$$

• But the limit in the equation

$$\delta_a(t) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} d_{a,\epsilon}(t), \tag{4}$$

gives

$$\delta_a(t) = \begin{cases} +\infty & \text{if } t = a, \\ 0 & \text{if } t \neq a. \end{cases}$$
(5)

- Obviously, no actual function can satisfy both of these conditions---if a function is zero except at a single point, then its integral is not 1 but zero.
- Nevertheless, the symbol  $\delta_a(t)$  is very useful.
- However interpreted, it is called the **Dirac delta function** at *a* after the British theoretical physicist Dirac (1902--1984), who in the early 1930s introduced a "function" with the above properties.

#### **Delta Functions as Operators**

**Definition of**  $\delta_a(t)$ . We take the following equation as the definition of the symbol  $\delta_a(t)$ .

$$\int_0^\infty g(t)\delta_a(t)\,dt = g(a). \tag{6}$$

Remark. Although we call it the delta function, it is not a function; instead, it specifies the

$$\int_0^\infty \cdots \delta_a(t) \, dt,\tag{7}$$

which---when applied to a continuous function g(t)---sifts out or selects the value g(a) of this function at the point  $a \ge 0$ .



### Laplace Transform of $\delta_a(t)$

If we take  $g(t)=e^{-st}$  in our definition of  $\delta_a(t)$ , the result is

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-st} \delta_a(t) \, dt = e^{-as}. \tag{8}$$

We therefore *define* the Laplace transform of the delta function to be

$$\mathcal{L}\{\delta_a(t)\}=e^{-as}\quad (a\geq 0).$$

We write

$$\delta(t) = \delta_0(t) \quad \text{and} \quad \delta(t-a) = \delta_a(t),$$
(10)

then

$$\mathcal{L}{\delta(t)} = 1$$
  $\mathcal{L}{\delta(t-a)} = e^{-as}$   $(a \ge 0)$  (11)

**Example 1** Solve the initial value problem and graph the solution function x(t).

$$x'' + 4x' + 4x = 1 + \delta(t-2); \quad x(0) = x'(0) = 0. \quad (12)$$
MUS: We apply the Loplace transform on both sides of Eq.(12)
  
Note
$$L = x'' = x^{2} X(x) - x(0)^{2} - x'(0)^{2}$$

$$L = x'' = x^{2} X(x) - x(0)^{2}$$

$$x'' = x^{2} X(x) - x^{2} X(x) + x^{2$$

Recall 
$$\int e^{at} t^{n} f = \frac{h!}{(s-a)^{n+1}} (s > a)$$

Recall 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{-1} \frac{1}{2} e^{as} F(s) = n(t-a) f(t-a)$$
  
Let  $F(s) = \frac{1}{(s+2)^2}$ , then  $f(t) = e^{-st} t$ 

Thus  

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{4} \left[ 1 - e^{-2s} - 2te^{-2t} \right] + u(t-2) \cdot (t-2)e^{-2(t-2)t}$$



Recall  $2 3(t-\alpha) = e^{-\alpha s}$ Example 2 Solve the initial value problem and graph the solution function x(t).

$$x'' + 2x' + 2x = 2\delta(t - \pi); \qquad x(0) = x'(0) = 0$$
(13)

ANS: We apply the Laplace transform on both sides of Eq(B)  

$$S^{*}X(s) + 2s X(s) + 2X(s) = 2 \cdot e^{-\pi s}$$
  
 $\Rightarrow X(s) = \frac{2e^{-\pi s}}{s^{2} + 2s + 2} = \frac{2e^{-\pi s}}{(s+1)^{2} + 1}$   
Recall  $L^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{(s+1)^{2} + 1} \right\} = e^{-t} \cdot \sinh t$   
Thus  $L^{-1} \left\{ \frac{2e^{-\pi s}}{(s+1)^{2} + 1} \right\} = \frac{1}{12} \cdot \ln(t - \pi) e^{-(t - \pi)}$   
 $L^{-1} \left\{ e^{-\pi s} F(s) \right\} = n(t - \alpha) \int (t - \alpha)$ 

$$= \int_{-2}^{0} 0, \quad 0 = t = \pi$$
  
$$= \int_{-2}^{-2} e^{-(t-\pi)} \sin t, \quad t > \pi$$
  
$$\sin (t-\pi) = - \sin t$$



#### Systems Analysis and Duhamel's Principle

Consider a physical system, like mass-spring-dashpot system and the series RLC circuit , described by the differential equation

$$ax'' + bx' + cx = f(t). (14)$$

The constant coefficients a, b, and c are determined by the physical parameters of the system and are independent of f(t).

For simplicity we assume that the system is initially passive: x(0) = x'(0) = 0. Then the transform of our differential equation is

$$as^{2}X(s) + bsX(s) + cX(s) = F(s),$$
 (15)

SO

$$X(s) = \frac{F(s)}{as^2 + bs + c} = W(s)F(s).$$
 (16)

The function

$$W(s) = \frac{1}{as^2 + bs + c} \tag{17}$$

is called the **transfer function** of the system. The function

$$w(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{W(s)\}$$
(18)

is called the **weight function** of the system. From the fact that X(s) = W(s)F(s) we see by convolution that

$$x(t) = \int_0^t w(\tau) f(t-\tau) \, d\tau. = \mathcal{W}(t) \star f(t) \qquad (19)$$

This formula is **Duhamel's principle** for the system.

**Example 3** Apply Duhamel's principle to write an integral formula for the solution of the initial value problem.

$$x'' + 6x' + 9x = f(t); \quad x(0) = x(0)' = 0$$
<sup>(20)</sup>

ANS: Apply the Laplace bransform. on both sides of the Eq. 20.  

$$S^{2}X(s) + 6sX(s) + 9X(s) = F(s)$$

$$\Rightarrow \chi(s) = \frac{1}{(s+3)^2} F(s)$$
Apply Dubamel's principle, we know
$$W(s) = \frac{1}{(s+3)^2}$$

$$w(t) = L^{-1} W(s) = L^{-1} \int \frac{1}{(s+3)^2} = e^{-3t} t$$
Thus
$$\chi(t) = W(t) + \int t^{-1} \int \frac{1}{(s+3)^2} = e^{-3t} t$$

$$f(t) = W(t) * f(t)$$

$$= \int_{0}^{t} W(\tau) f(t-\tau) d\tau$$

$$= \int_{0}^{t} e^{-3\tau} \tau f(t-\tau) d\tau$$