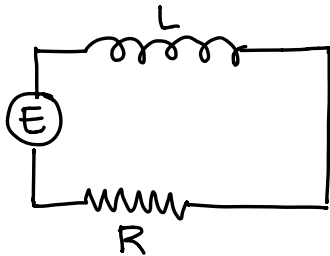


ODEs w/ Discontinuous Forcing Functions + Series in ODEs

Example: L-R Series Circuit



Series circuit containing a resistor R and an inductor L :

$i(t)$ = current at time t

$E(t)$ = voltage impressed on the circuit

$L \frac{di}{dt}$ = voltage drop across the inductor

iR = voltage drop across the resistor

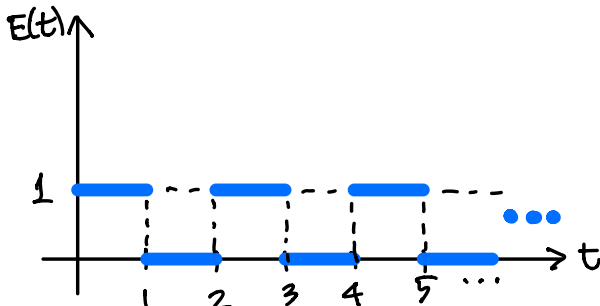
Kirchhoff's Second Law:

$$L \frac{di}{dt} + Ri = E(t)$$

→ a differential equation for the current $i(t)$

Solving this depends on how complicated the voltage $E(t)$ is. Often times, $E(t)$ is discontinuous.

- ① Find the current $i(t)$ in a single loop L-R series circuit, given that the voltage $E(t)$ is the square wave below, and the initial condition $i(0) = 0$.



$E(t)$ = periodic w/ period $T=2$

$$\mathcal{L}\{E(t)\} = \frac{1}{1-e^{-2s}} \int_0^2 e^{-st} E(t) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-e^{-2s}} \int_0^1 e^{-st} dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-e^{-2s}} \left(\frac{-1}{s} e^{-st} \right) \Big|_{t=0}^1$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-e^{-2s}} \left(\frac{-1}{s} e^{-s} + \frac{1}{s} \right) = \frac{1-e^{-s}}{s(1-e^{-2s})}$$

$$= \frac{1 - e^{-s}}{s(1 - e^{-s})(1 + e^{-s})} = \frac{1}{s(1 + e^{-s})}$$

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

Laplace transform of ODE: (remember $i(t)$ is the unknown function here, and L & R are constants)

$$L i' + R i = E(t)$$

$$L \mathcal{L}\{i'\} + R \mathcal{L}\{i\} = \mathcal{L}\{E(t)\}$$

$$L \left(s I(s) - \underbrace{i(0)}_0 + R I(s) \right) = \frac{1}{s(1 + e^{-s})}$$

$$(Ls + R) I(s) = \frac{1}{s(1 + e^{-s})} \Rightarrow I(s) = \frac{1}{(Ls + R)s(1 + e^{-s})}$$

$$\Rightarrow i(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{s(Ls + R)(1 + e^{-s})} \right\}$$

Now, how to find this inverse Laplace?

- The part with $s(Ls + R)$ we could do partial fractions for:

$$\frac{1}{s(Ls + R)} = \frac{A}{s} + \frac{B}{Ls + R} = \frac{1}{Rs} - \frac{L}{R(Ls + R)}$$

$$1 = A(Ls + R) + Bs$$

$$s = 0: 1 = AR \Rightarrow A = 1/R$$

$$s = -R/L: 1 = -R/L B \Rightarrow B = -L/R$$

- So now we have:

$$i(t) = \frac{1}{R} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{1+e^{-s}} \right\} - \frac{1}{R} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{s+R/L} \frac{1}{1+e^{-s}} \right\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1} \{ e^{-as} F(s) \} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \{ F(s) \} \Big|_{t \rightarrow t-a} u_a(t)$$

Problem: We know how to handle things like $\mathcal{L}^{-1} \{ e^{-as} F(s) \}$,
but how to deal with the term $\frac{1}{1+e^{-s}}$?! **Series Expansions!**

Recall from Calculus II: (the geometric series):

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^k$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|x| < 1$.

So let $x = e^{-s}$ above, with $s > 0$:

$$\frac{1}{1+e^{-s}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k (e^{-s})^k = \underline{\underline{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k e^{-sk}}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{1+e^{-s}} \right\} &= \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{s} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k e^{-sk} \right\} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{s} e^{-sk} \right\} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \underbrace{\mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{s} \right\}}_{1|_{t \rightarrow t-k} = 1} \Big|_{t \rightarrow t-k} u_k(t) \\ &= \underline{\underline{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k u_k(t)}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s+R/L} \frac{1}{1+e^{-s}}\right\} &= \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s+R/L} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k e^{-sk}\right\} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s+R/L} e^{-sk}\right\} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s+R/L}\right\} \Big|_{t \rightarrow t-k} u_k(t) \\
&\quad \underbrace{e^{-R/L t} \Big|_{t \rightarrow t-k} = e^{-\frac{R}{L}(t-k)}} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k e^{-\frac{R}{L}(t-k)} u_k(t)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow i(t) = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k u_k(t) - \frac{1}{R} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k e^{-\frac{R}{L}(t-k)} u_k(t)$$

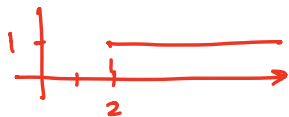
$$i(t) = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \left(1 - e^{-\frac{R}{L}(t-k)}\right) u_k(t)$$

Take $R=L=1$:

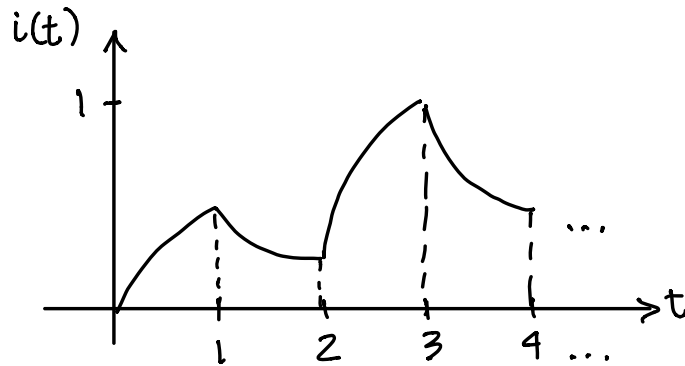
$$i(t) = (1 - e^{-t})u_0(t) - (1 - e^{-(t-1)})u_1(t)$$



$$+ (1 - e^{-(t-2)})u_2(t) - (1 - e^{-(t-3)})u_3(t) + \dots$$



$$i(t) = \begin{cases} 0 \leq t < 1: & 1 - e^{-t} \\ 1 \leq t < 2: & (1 - e^{-t}) - (1 - e^{-(t-1)}) = -e^{-t} + e^{-(t-1)} \\ 2 \leq t < 3: & (1 - e^{-t}) - (1 - e^{-(t-1)}) + (1 - e^{-(t-2)}) \\ & = -e^{-t} + e^{-(t-1)} + 1 - e^{-(t-2)} \\ & \vdots \end{cases}$$



Review of Power Series

- Infinite Series: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

- Sequence of partial sums: $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n$

$$S_1 = a_1$$

$$S_2 = a_1 + a_2$$

$$S_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3$$

⋮

- The sequence $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is said to converge to some number S if and only if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sum_{n=1}^N a_n \right) = S.$$

- The geometric series:

$$a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad \text{, iff } |r| < 1$$

(divergent if $|r| \geq 1$).

- Transition to variables:

Example: For what values of x does the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-2)^n x^n$

converge?

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-2x)^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-2x) \cdot (-2x)^{n-1} \quad \text{is geometric w/}$$

$$a = r = -2x$$

\Rightarrow Series converges $\Leftrightarrow |-2x| = |2x| < 1 \Leftrightarrow |x| < \frac{1}{2}$

$$\boxed{x \in (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})}$$

- Power Series: A power series centered at a (about a), where a is a constant, is a series of the form:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + \dots$$

There are 3 possibilities: (radius (R) and interval (I) of convergence)

- ① Series only converges at $x=a$: $R=0$; $I=\{a\}$.
- ② Series converges for all real x : $R=\infty$; $I=\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$
- ③ There is some $0 < R < \infty$ such that the series converges absolutely for all $|x-a| < R$ ($a-R < x < a+R$) and diverges for $|x-a| > R$ (anything can happen at the endpoints $a-R$ & $a+R$!)

I could be $(a-R, a+R)$, $(a-R, a+R]$, $[a-R, a+R)$, or $[a-R, a+R]$.

- A power series defines a function $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$ (domain = interval of convergence).
- Point: go backwards, i.e. start w/a function $f(x)$ and express it as a power series about some $x=a$ (power series expansion of f).

// Def: A function $f(x)$ is said to be analytic at a point $x=a$ if it can be represented by a power series centered at a , with radius of convergence $R > 0$ (could be ∞).

- In Calc 2: infinitely differentiable functions such as e^x , $\sin(x)$, $\cos(x)$, $\ln(1+x)$ etc. can be represented by **Taylor series**:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$

or by a **Maclaurin series** (Taylor expansion at $a=0$):

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$

- Some familiar (hopefully) examples:

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \quad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$\cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots \quad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots \quad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} x^n = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \quad (x \in (-1, 1])$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots \quad (x \in (-1, 1))$$

Recall that you can use these to obtain new power series:

$$e^{x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x^2)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{n!}$$

$$\ln(x) = \ln(1+(x-1)) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} (x-1)^n, \quad \begin{array}{l} x-1 \in (-1, 1] \\ \underline{\underline{x \in (0, 2]}} \end{array}$$