

**EE 512**

**DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING**

**Session 5**

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## Methods of Solution

### 1- Method of Undetermined Coefficients

The recursive method for finding the solution of difference equation does not provide a "closed form" solution.

Three steps are needed for finding the general or closed form solution for a Constant Coefficient linear difference equation.

- 1- Obtain the homogeneous <sup>(Zero-input response)</sup> or Complementary solution,  $y_h(n)$ .
- 2- Obtain the particular <sup>(Zero-state response)</sup> solution,  $y_p(n)$ .
- 3- Obtain the constants in  $y_h(n)$  by applying the initial conditions.

The Complete solution is then

$$y(n) = y_h(n) + y_p(n) \quad \text{then apply IC's to find the constants in } y_h(n).$$

#### Step 1 (Homogeneous solution)

Arrange the characteristic equation

$$a_0 \lambda^N + a_1 \lambda^{N-1} + \dots + a_N = 0$$

and find its roots. Use table 1 to obtain the homogeneous solution  $y_h(n)$  depending on the roots.

#### Step 2

As in the case of differential equations there are a set of rules that one must follow to form appropriate particular solutions while solving difference equation. These are summarized

in Table 2.

### Step 3

Solve for  $C_i$ 's using the initial conditions.

### Example 1

Determine the Complete solution for

$$y(n) - \frac{3}{2} y(n-1) + \frac{1}{2} y(n-2) = 1 + 3^{-n} \quad n \geq 0$$

with  $y(-2) = 0$  and  $y(-1) = 2$ .

### Step 1

$$y_h(n) = C_1 \lambda_1^n + C_2 \lambda_2^n$$

where  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the roots of

$$\lambda^2 - \frac{3}{2} \lambda + \frac{1}{2} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1/2, \lambda_2 = 1$$

Thus

$$y_h(n) = C_1 2^{-n} + C_2 1^n = C_1 2^{-n} + C_2$$

### Step 2

From the table 2 the choice for  $y_p(n)$  is

$$d_1 + d_2 3^{-n}$$

but since this solution and the homogeneous solution have a common term that is the constant, the modified choice is

$$y_p(n) = d_1 n + d_2 3^{-n}$$

Substituting  $y_p(n)$  into the Diff. Eq. gives



$$(d_1 n + d_2 3^{-n}) - \frac{3}{2} [d_1 (n-1) + d_2 3^{-(n-1)}] + \frac{1}{2} [d_1 (n-2) + d_2 3^{-(n-2)}] = 1 + 3^{-n}$$

This gives

$$\frac{1}{2} d_1 + d_2 3^{-n} = 1 + 3^{-n} \Rightarrow d_1 = 2, d_2 = 1$$

Thus

$$y(n) = y_h(n) + y_p(n) = c_1 2^{-n} + c_2 + 2n + 3^{-n}$$

Step 3

Apply the initial conditions  $y(-1) = 2, y(-2) = 0$

$$\begin{cases} 2c_1 + c_2 = 1 \\ 4c_1 + c_2 = -5 \end{cases} \Rightarrow c_1 = -3, c_2 = 7$$

or

$$y(n) = (-3) 2^{-n} + 7 + 2n + 3^{-n}, \quad n \geq 0$$

Example 2

Find the particular solution for the 1st order difference equation

$$y(n) - \frac{1}{2} y(n-1) = \sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right), \quad n \geq 0$$

$$y_p(n) = d_1 \sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + d_2 \cos\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

Substitute in the equation

$$d_1 \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) + d_2 \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) - \frac{1}{2} \left[ d_1 \sin\left((n-1)\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + d_2 \cos\left((n-1)\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \right] \\ = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$$

Recall the following trigonometric identities

$$\begin{cases} \sin\left((n-1)\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\cos\frac{n\pi}{2} \\ \cos\left((n-1)\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \sin\frac{n\pi}{2} \end{cases}$$

Thus we get

$$\left(d_1 - \frac{1}{2}d_2\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}d_1 + d_2\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$\begin{cases} d_1 - \frac{1}{2}d_2 = 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}d_1 + d_2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} d_1 = 4/5 \\ d_2 = -2/5 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Thus } y_p(n) = \frac{4}{5} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) - \frac{2}{5} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right), \quad n \geq 0$$

Table 2 : Rules for Choosing Particular Solutions

| Terms in the forcing function                              | Choice of Particular solution $\dagger$                               |
|--|---|
| 1. A Constant  | $d$ ; $d$ is a constant   |
| 2. $b_1 n^k$ ; $b_1$ is a constant                         | $d_0 + d_1 n + d_2 n^2 + \dots + d_k n^k$ ;<br>$d_i$ 's are constants |
| 3. $b_2 \alpha^{\pm n}$ ; $b_2$ and $\alpha$ are constants | Proportional to $\alpha^{\pm n}$                                      |
| 4. $b_3 \cos n\omega$                                      | $d_1 \sin n\omega + d_2 \cos n\omega$                                 |
| 5. $b_4 \sin n\omega$                                      |   |

$b_3$  and  $b_4$   
are constants

$\dagger$ : If a term in any of the particular solutions in this column is a part of the Complementary solution, it is necessary to modify the corresponding choice by multiplying it by  $n$  before using it. If such a term appears " $r$ " times in the complementary solution, the corresponding choice must be multiplied by  $n^r$ .

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Table 1

Solution To Homogeneous  
Difference equation

| Difference Equation  | Characteristic Equation   |
|--|---|
| $a_0 y(n) + a_1 y(n-1) + \dots + a_N y(n-N) = 0$                           | $a_0 \lambda^N + a_1 \lambda^{N-1} + \dots + a_N = 0$   |
| Case 1<br>$\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \neq \lambda_3 = \dots \neq \lambda_N$ | $y_h(n) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \lambda_i^n$   |
| Case 2<br>$\lambda_j \equiv$ root of multiplicity $m$                      | $y_h(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-m} c_i \lambda_i^n + c_j \lambda_j^n + c_{j+1} n \lambda_j^n + \dots + c_{j+m} n^{m-1} \lambda_j^n$   |
| Case 3<br>Pair of roots $a \pm jb$ of multiplicity $m$                     | $y_h(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-2m} c_i \lambda_i^n + d_1 r^n \cos n\theta + d_2 n r^n \cos n\theta + \dots + d_m n^{m-1} r^n \cos n\theta + d_{m+1} r^n \sin n\theta + d_{m+2} n r^n \sin n\theta + \dots + d_{2m} n^{m-1} r^n \sin n\theta$ |

$$r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{a}{r}$$

$$\sin \theta = b/r$$

$$-\pi < \theta < \pi$$



## 2- The z-Transform

The role of z-transform to discrete-time systems is similar to that of the Laplace transform to continuous-time systems. In recent years, the time domain approach using state-space method has gained great significance in studies of discrete-time systems due to its great versatility and unified treatment to analysis and design problems. However, the importance of z-transform and its role in classical analysis and design has its own place in the real world.

The z-transform of sequence  $\{x(n)\}$  is defined as

$$X(z) = Z\{x(n)\} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n} \quad \text{Two-sided z-transform}$$

If  $x(n) = 0$  for  $\forall n < 0$  then

$$X(z) = Z\{x(n)\} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n} \quad \text{One-sided z-transform}$$

### Example 1

Find the z-transforms of

$$x(n) = a^n u(n) \text{ and } x(n) = a^n u(-n)$$

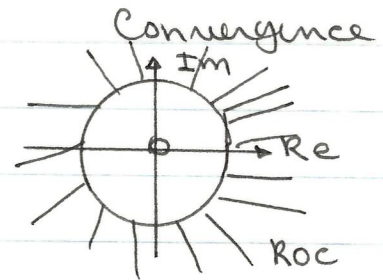
We have

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^n z^{-n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{a}{z}\right)^n$$

$$\text{Use } \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} r^n = \frac{1}{1-r} \quad |r| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - a/z} \quad \text{if } \left|\frac{a}{z}\right| < 1$$

or  $X(z) = \frac{z}{z-a}$

$|z| > |a|$  ROC: Region of

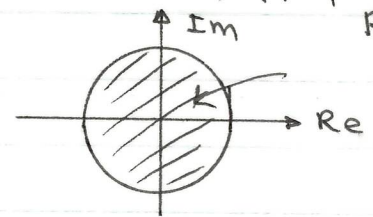


For  $x(n) = a^n u(-n)$  we have

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^0 a^n z^{-n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{a}\right)^n$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z}{a}} = \frac{-a}{z-a}$$

for  $\left|\frac{z}{a}\right| < 1$  or  $|z| < |a|$  ROC



### Example 2

Find the z-transform of

$$x(n) = A \sin(\omega_0 n T), \quad \forall n \geq 0$$

Then

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A \sin(\omega_0 n T) z^{-n}$$

$$= A \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{e^{j\omega_0 n T} - e^{-j\omega_0 n T}}{2j} \right) z^{-n}$$

$$= \frac{A}{2j} \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (e^{j\omega_0 T} z^{-1})^n - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (e^{-j\omega_0 T} z^{-1})^n \right]$$

$$= \frac{A}{2j} \left[ \frac{1}{1 - e^{j\omega_0 T} z^{-1}} - \frac{1}{1 - e^{-j\omega_0 T} z^{-1}} \right]$$

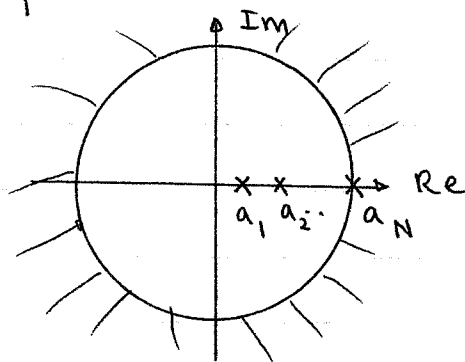
$$= 2A \frac{z^{-1} \sin \omega_0 T}{1 - 2z^{-1} \cos \omega_0 T + z^{-2}}$$

This exists when  $\left| \frac{e^{\pm j\omega_0 T}}{z} \right| < 1$  or  $|z| > 1$  ROC

### Remarks

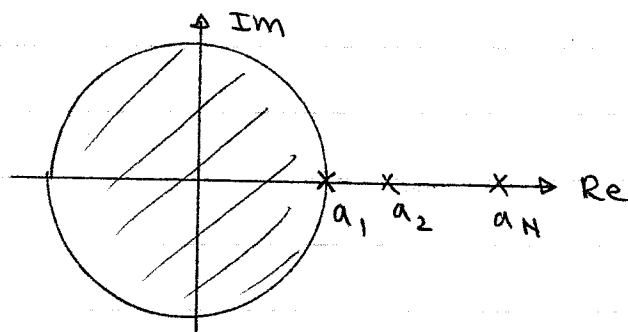
- 1- For <sup>all</sup> right sided sequences the ROC is outside a circle; and for all the left-sided sequences the ROC is inside a circle.
- 2- For right sided sequences the ROC is bounded on the inside by the pole with largest magnitude and on the outside by infinity ( $\infty$ ).

For left-sided sequences the ROC is bounded on the outside by the pole with smallest magnitude and on the inside by zero.



R-Sided ROC

$$a_N > a_{N-1} > \dots > a_1$$

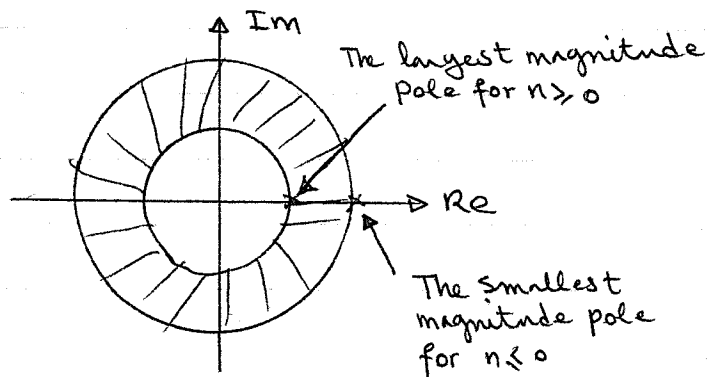


L-sided ROC

$$a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_N$$

For a two-sided sequence ROC is bounded on the inside by the pole with the largest magnitude that contributes for  $n \geq 0$  and on the outside by the pole with the smallest magnitude that contributes for  $n \leq 0$ .

Note: An ROC should not enclose a pole.

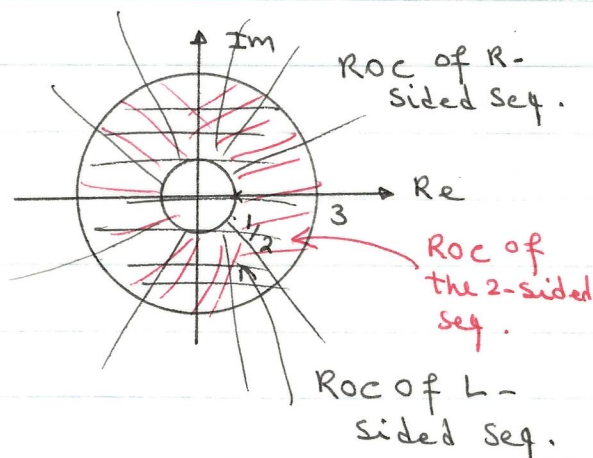


### Example

$$\text{Let } x(n) = \begin{cases} (1/2)^n & n \geq 0 \\ 3^n & n \leq -1 \end{cases}$$

Find  $X(z)$  and the region of convergence.

$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} x(n) z^{-n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n} \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} 3^n z^{-n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1/2)^n z^{-n} \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^0 \left(\frac{3}{z}\right)^n - 1 + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1/2 z)^n \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z}{3}} - 1 + \frac{1}{1 - 1/2 z} = \frac{3}{3-z} - 1 + \frac{z}{z-1/2} \\ &= \frac{-5/2 z}{(z-3)(z-1/2)} \end{aligned}$$

### Properties of Z-Transform

#### 1) Linearity

Let  $\mathcal{Z}\{x_1(n)\} = X_1(z)$  and

$$\mathcal{Z}\{x_2(n)\} = X_2(z)$$

$$R_1 < |z| < R_2$$

$$R_3 < |z| < R_4$$

$$\text{Then } \mathcal{Z}\{a x_1(n) + b x_2(n)\} = a X_1(z) + b X_2(z)$$

$$R_5 < |z| < R_6$$

If poles of  $a X_1(z) + b X_2(z)$  = poles of  $X_1(z) \cup$  poles of  $X_2(z)$

then

$$R_5 = \text{Max}[R_1, R_3] \text{ and } R_6 = \text{Max}_{in}[R_2, R_4]$$



### Remark

If the linear combination is such that some zeros are introduced which cancel poles, then the ROC may be larger. For example both  $a^n u(n)$  and  $a^n u(n-1)$  have ROC defined by  $|z| > |a|$  but sequence  $[a^n u(n) - a^n u(n-1)] = \delta(n)$  has a region of convergence that is the entire  $z$ -plane.

$$\mathcal{Z}\{a^n u(n)\} = \frac{z}{z-a} \quad \text{ROC } |z| > |a|$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\{a^n u(n-1)\} = \frac{z}{z-a} - 1 = \frac{a}{z-a} \quad \text{ROC } |z| > |a|$$

$$\text{and } \mathcal{Z}\{a^n u(n) - a^n u(n-1)\} = \mathcal{Z}\{\delta(n)\} = \frac{z}{z-a} - \frac{a}{z-a} = 1$$

ROC is entire  $z$ -plane

### 2-shifting in time-domain

$$\text{Let } \mathcal{Z}\{x(n)\} = X(z) \quad R_1 < |z| < R_2$$

$$\text{then } \mathcal{Z}\{x(n-n_0)\} = z^{-n_0} X(z) \quad R_1 < |z| < R_2 \quad (\text{when IC's are zero})$$

or  $\mathcal{Z}\{x(n-n_0)\} = z^{-n_0} \left[ X(z) + \sum_{k=-n_0}^{-1} x(k) z^{-k} \right]$ ,  $x(-1), \dots, x(-n_0)$  are IC's

ROC's of both are the same except may be at  $z=0$  and  $z=\infty$ .

### Example

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\delta(n)\} = 1 \text{ is convergent anywhere in } z\text{-plane but } \mathcal{Z}\{\delta(n-1)\} = z^{-1} \text{ does not converge at } z=0 \text{ and the } z\text{-transform of } \mathcal{Z}\{\delta(n+1)\} = z \text{ does not converge at } z=\infty.$$

Additionally we have

$$\mathcal{Z}\{x(n+n_0)\} = z^{n_0} \left[ X(z) - \sum_{k=0}^{n_0-1} x(k) z^{-k} \right]$$