Signals & Systems

Spring 2019

https://sites.google.com/site/ntusands/

https://ceiba.ntu.edu.tw/1072EE2011_04

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Ch. 9 Laplace Transform

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system analysis

unilateral form definitions,

calculation

properties

9.1 The Laplace Transform

CTFT vs. Laplace Transform

Fourier transform

$$s = j\omega$$

$$X(j\omega) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-j\omega t}dt$$

$$x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{F}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(j\omega)$$

$$X(j\omega) = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)\}$$

$$x(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{X(j\omega)\}\$$

Laplace transform

$$s = \sigma + j\omega$$

$$X(s) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st}dt$$

$$x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(s)$$

$$X(s) = \mathcal{L}\{x(t)\}$$

$$x(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{X(s)\}\$$

FT is the LT evaluated along the $j\omega$ axis:

$$X(s)\Big|_{s=j\omega} = \mathcal{L}\{x(t)\}\Big|_{s=j\omega} = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)\} = X(j\omega)$$

9.5 Properties of Laplace Transform

Differentiation in Time and s Domain

$$x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(s), \text{ ROC} = R$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} sX(s), \text{ ROC contains } R$$

$$-tx(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{dX(s)}{ds}, \text{ ROC} = R$$

pole-zero cancellation may occur.

Proof:

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} X(s) \frac{de^{st}}{dt} ds = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} sX(s) e^{st} ds$$
$$\frac{d}{ds} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-t) x(t) e^{-st} dt$$

9.5 Properties of Laplace Transform

Integration in Time

$$x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(s)$$
, ROC= R

$$\int_{-\infty}^{t} x(\tau) d\tau \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{1}{s} X(s)$$
, ROC contains $R \cap \{\text{Re}\{s\} > 0\}$

Proof:

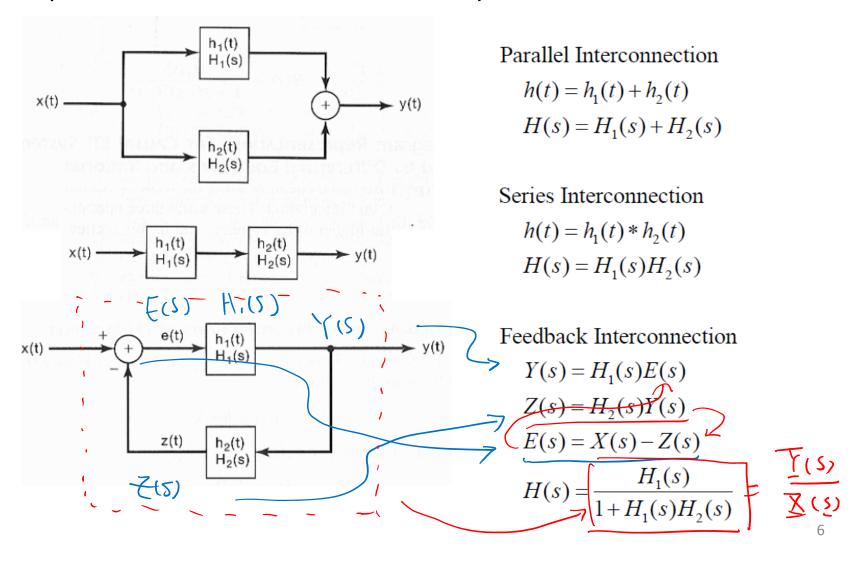
$$\int_{-\infty}^{t} x(\tau)d\tau = u(t) * x(t)$$

From Example 9.1, $u(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{1}{s}$, $\operatorname{Re}\{s\} > 0$

$$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{t} x(\tau) d\tau \xleftarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s} X(s), \text{ with an ROC containing the}$$

intersection of the ROC of X(s) and the ROC of the LT of u(t).

System Function for Interconnected LTI Systems



Example 9.30
 Block diagram construction

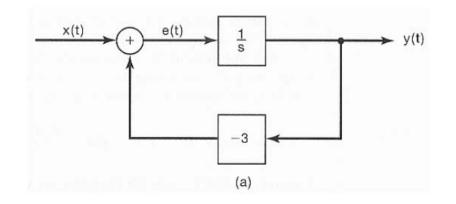
$$H(s) = \frac{1}{s+3} = \frac{\sum(s)}{\sum(s)}$$

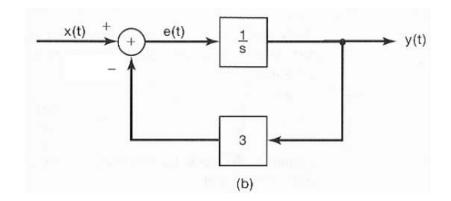
$$Y(s) = \frac{1}{s+3}X(s)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}y(t) + 3y(t) = x(t)$$

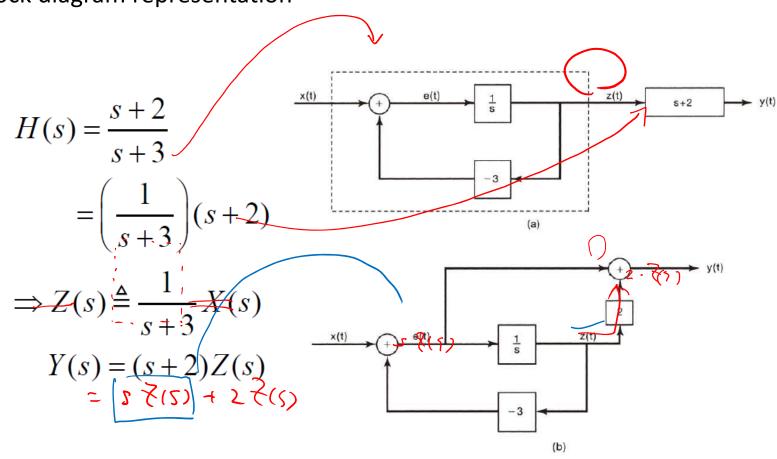
$$\frac{d}{dt}y(t) = x(t) - 3y(t)$$

$$S(s) = 3\sum(s) = \sum(s)$$





Example 9.31
 Block diagram representation



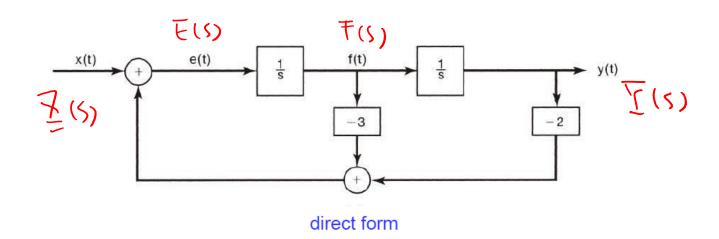
Example 9.32
 Block diagram representation

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow s^{2}Y + 3sY + 2Y = X$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} F = sY \\ E = sF = s^{2}Y \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = s^{2}Y = -3F - 2Y + X$$



Example 9.32
 Block diagram representation (cont'd)

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$

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

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

- Bilateral vs. Unilateral Laplace Transform
 - The difference between bilateral and unilateral LT is in the lower limit of the integration.

Bilateral LT
$$X(s) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st}dt$$

$$x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(s)$$

Unilateral LT
$$\mathcal{X}(s) \triangleq \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st}dt$$

$$x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{UL}}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{X}(s)$$
ROC: always a right half plane

right half plane

Note that the lower limit in unilateral LT signifies that we include in the interval of integration any impulses or higher order singularity functions concentrated at t = 0.

Example 9.34

$$x(t) = \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} e^{-at} u(t). \qquad \mathfrak{X}(s) = \frac{1}{(s+a)^n}, \qquad \Re\{s\} > -a.$$

• Example 9.35 Bilateral LT (by time-shifting property)

Unilateral LT
$$\longrightarrow$$
 $\mathfrak{X}(s) = \frac{e^s}{s+a}$, $\Re e\{s\} > -a$.
$$\mathfrak{X}(s) = \int_{0^-}^{\infty} e^{-a(t+1)} u(t+1) e^{-st} \, dt$$

$$= \int_{0^-}^{\infty} e^{-a} e^{-t(s+a)} \, dt$$

$$= e^{-a} \frac{1}{s+a}, \qquad \Re e\{s\} > -a.$$

We should recognize X(s) as the bilateral transform not of x(t), but of x(t)u(t).

Example 9.36

Transform pair	Signal	Transform	ROC
9	$-\frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}e^{-\alpha t}u(-t)$	$\frac{1}{(s+\alpha)^n}$	$\Re e\{s\} < -\alpha$
10	$\delta(t-T)$	e^{-sT}	All s
11	$[\cos \omega_0 t] u(t)$	$\frac{s}{s^2 + \omega_0^2}$	$\operatorname{Re}\{s\} > 0$
12	$[\sin \omega_0 t] u(t)$	$\frac{\omega_0}{s^2 + \omega_0^2}$	$\Re e\{s\} > 0$
13	$[e^{-\alpha t}\cos\omega_0 t]u(t)$	$\frac{s+\alpha}{(s+\alpha)^2+\omega_0^2}$	$\Re e\{s\} > -\alpha$
14	$[e^{-\alpha t}\sin\omega_0 t]u(t)$	$\frac{\omega_0}{(s+\alpha)^2+\omega_0^2}$	$\Re e\{s\} > -\alpha$
15	$u_n(t) = \frac{d^n \delta(t)}{dt^n}$	s^n	All s
16	$u_{-n}(t) = \underbrace{u(t) * \cdots * u(t)}_{}$	$\frac{1}{s^n}$	$\operatorname{Re}\{s\}>0$
	n times		

Sect. 2.5 Unit Doublets

$$u_1(t) = \frac{d}{dt}\delta(t).$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = x(t) * u_1(t).$$
15

$$x(t) = \delta(t) + 2u_1(t) + e^t u(t).$$

Since x(t) = 0 for t < 0, and since singularities at the origin are included in the interval of integration, the unilateral transform for x(t) is the same as the bilateral transform.

$$\mathfrak{X}(s) = X(s) = 1 + 2s + \frac{1}{s-1} = \frac{s(2s-1)}{s-1}, \qquad \Re\{s\} > 1.$$

• Example 9.38

$$\mathfrak{X}(s) = \frac{s^2 - 3}{s + 2}. \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \mathfrak{X}(s) = A + Bs + \frac{C}{s + 2}.$$

$$s^2 - 3 = (A + Bs)(s + 2) + C, \implies \mathfrak{X}(s) = -2 + s + \frac{1}{s + 2},$$



$$x(t) = -2\delta(t) + u_1(t) + e^{-2t}u(t)$$
 for $t > 0^-$.

Properties of Unilateral LT

TABLE 9.3 PROPERTIES OF THE UNILATERAL LAPLACE TRANSFORM

Property	Signal	Unilateral Laplace Transform
	$x(t) \\ x_1(t) \\ x_2(t)$	$egin{array}{c} \mathfrak{X}(s) \ \mathfrak{X}_1(s) \ \mathfrak{X}_2(s) \ \end{array}$
Linearity	$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t)$	$a\mathfrak{X}_1(s) + b\mathfrak{X}_2(s)$
Shifting in the s-domain	$e^{s_0t}x(t)$	$\mathfrak{X}(s-s_0)$
Time scaling	x(at), a > 0	$\frac{1}{a} \mathfrak{X} \left(\frac{s}{a} \right)$
Conjugation	$x^*(t)$	$X^*(s^*)$
Convolution (assuming that $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$ are identically zero for $t < 0$)	$x_1(t) * x_2(t)$	$\mathfrak{X}_1(s)\mathfrak{X}_2(s)$

Properties of Unilateral LT

Differentiation in the time domain	$\frac{d}{dt}x(t)$	$s\mathfrak{X}(s)-x(0^{-})$
Differentiation in the s-domain	-tx(t)	$\frac{d}{ds}\mathfrak{X}(s)$
Integration in the time domain	$\int_{0^{-}}^{t} x(\tau) d\tau$	$\frac{1}{s} \mathfrak{X}(s)$

Initial- and Final-Value Theorems

If x(t) contains no impulses or higher-order singularities at t = 0, then

$$x(0^+) = \lim_{s \to \infty} s \, \mathfrak{X}(s)$$

$$\lim_{t\to\infty}x(t)=\lim_{s\to0}s\,\mathfrak{X}(s)$$

Recall: 9.5 Properties of Laplace Transform

• Differentiation in Time and s Domain

$$x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(s)$$
, ROC = R
 $\frac{d}{dt}x(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} sX(s)$, ROC contains R
 $-tx(t) \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{dX(s)}{ds}$, ROC = R

pole-zero cancellation may occur.

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} X(s) \frac{de^{st}}{dt} ds = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} sX(s) e^{st} ds$$
$$\frac{d}{ds} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-t) x(t) e^{-st} dt$$

Integration by parts

 $\int u \frac{\mathrm{d}v}{\mathrm{d}x} \, \mathrm{d}x = u \, v - \int v \frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}x} \mathrm{d}x$

• Differential Properties

$$\mathcal{UL}\left\{\frac{dx(t)}{dt}\right\} = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} e^{-st} dt = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dt} (x(t)e^{-st}) + sx(t)e^{-st} dt$$

$$= x(t)e^{-st} \Big|_{0^{-}}^{\infty} + s \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st} dt \qquad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d(uv)}{dx} = u\frac{dv}{dx} + v\frac{du}{dx}.$$

$$= 0 - x(0^{-}) + s\mathcal{X}(s) \qquad u\frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{d(uv)}{dx} - v\frac{du}{dx}.$$

$$= s\mathcal{X}(s) - x(0^{-}) \qquad \int u\frac{dv}{dx} dx = \int \frac{d(uv)}{dx} dx - \int v\frac{du}{dx} dx.$$

$$\mathcal{UL}\left\{\frac{d^{2}x(t)}{dt^{2}}\right\} = \int_{0^{-}}^{\infty} \frac{d^{2}x(t)}{dt^{2}} e^{-st} dt = s^{2}\mathcal{X}(s) - sx(0^{-}) - x'(0^{-})$$

• Example 9.39

$$\frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2} + 3\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 2y(t) = x(t)$$

$$x(t) = \alpha u(t); \text{ initial conditions: } y(0^-) = \beta, \quad y'(0^-) = \gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow s^2 \mathcal{Y}(s) - \beta s - \gamma + 3s \mathcal{Y}(s) - 3\beta + 2 \mathcal{Y}(s) = \frac{\alpha}{s}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{Y}(s) = \frac{\beta(s+3)}{(s+1)(s+2)} + \frac{\gamma}{(s+1)(s+2)} + \frac{\alpha}{s(s+1)(s+2)}$$
The overall response is the superposition of the zero-input response and the zero-state response.

$$\frac{\text{Zero-input response}}{(\alpha = 0)} = \frac{(\beta = \gamma = 0)}{(\beta = \gamma = 0)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{Y}(s) = \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{s+1} + \frac{3}{s+2} \quad \text{with } \alpha = 2, \beta = 3, \text{ and } \gamma = -5$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t) = [1 - e^{-t} + 3e^{-2t}] u(t), \text{ for } t > 0$$

Initial-Value Theorem for Unilateral LT

$$x(0^+) = \lim_{s \to \infty} s \mathcal{X}(s)$$

Applies only when the order of the numerator polynomial of X(s) is smaller than that of the denominator polynomial.

Final-Value Theorem

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} s \mathcal{V}(s)$$

Applies only if all the poles of X(s) are in the left half of the s-plane, with at most a single pole at s=0.

Ch. 10 The Z Transform

- Section 10.1 The z-Transform
- Section 10.2 The Region of Convergence for z-Transforms
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Revisit of Laplace Transform

Recall that the response of a linear time-invariant system with impulse response
$$h(t)$$
 to a complex exponential input of the form e^{st} is
$$y(t) = H(s)e^{st},$$
 where
$$y(t) = H(s)e^{st},$$
 where
$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t)e^{-st} dt \qquad \text{(i.e. the system function of the system)}$$

$$H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t)e^{-st} dt.$$
 (i.e., the system function of the system)

For a general signal x(t), a transform like the one above is refereed to as the (bilateral) Laplace transform:

$$X(s) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st}dt$$

where $s = \sigma + j\omega$ is a complex variable.

Thus, Laplace transform can be viewed as an extension of CTFT.

The z-Transform

Recall that for a discrete-time LTI system with impulse response h[n], the response y[n] of the system to a complex exponential input of the form z^n is

where
$$y[n] = H(z)z^{n}$$

$$H[z] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} h[n]z^{-n}.$$

$$z = e^{j\omega} \text{ with } |z| = 1, \text{ the summation corresponds to the DT Fourier}$$

$$z = e^{j\omega} \text{ with } |z| = 1, \text{ the summation corresponds to the DT Fourier}$$

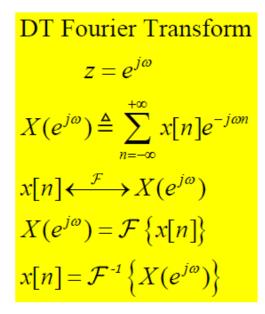
When $z = e^{j\omega}$ with |z| = 1, the summation corresponds to the DT Fourier transform of h[n]. When z is not restricted to the unit circle in the z-plane, the summation is called the z-transform of h[n].

The z-transform of a general DT signal x[n] is defined as:

$$X(z) \triangleq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n] z^{-n}$$

where $z = re^{j\omega}$ is a complex variable.

DTFT vs. z-Transform



z-Transform
$$z = re^{j\omega}$$

$$X(z) \triangleq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n}$$

$$x[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$$

$$X(z) = \mathcal{Z} \{x[n]\}$$

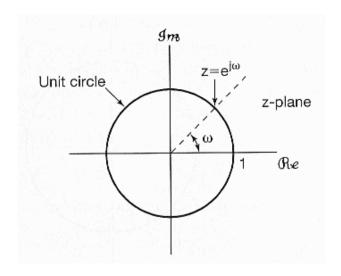
$$x[n] = \mathcal{Z}^{-1} \{X(z)\}$$

Evaluating the z-transform on the unit circle $z = e^{j\omega}$ yields the Fourier transform:

$$X(z)\Big|_{z=e^{j\omega}} = \mathcal{Z}\left\{x[n]\right\}\Big|_{z=e^{j\omega}} = \mathcal{F}\left\{x[n]\right\} = X(e^{j\omega})$$

z-Transform from DTFT

$$X(re^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n](re^{j\omega})^{-n}$$
$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \left\{ x[n]r^{-n} \right\} e^{-j\omega n}$$
$$= \mathcal{F} \left\{ x[n]r^{-n} \right\}$$

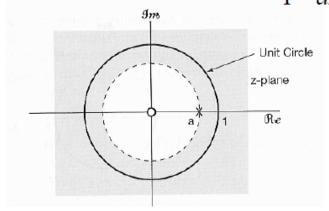


The z-transform of a DT signal x[n] is the Fourier transform of the signal $x[n]r^{-n}$.

Region of convergence (ROC) refers to the range of values of r for which X(z) converges.

• Example 10.1

$$x[n] = a^n u[n]$$



For |a| > 1, ROC does not include the unit circle \Rightarrow $\mathcal{F} \{a^n u[n]\}$ does not converge

• Example 10.2

$$x[n] = -a^{n}u[-n-1]$$

$$X(z) = -\sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} a^{n}u[-n-1]z^{-n}$$

$$= -\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} a^{n}z^{-n} = -\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a^{-n}z^{n} = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(a^{-1}z\right)^{n}$$

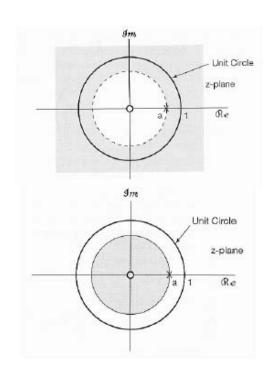
$$= 1 - \frac{1}{1 - a^{-1}z}, \quad |a^{-1}z| < 1$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{z}{z - a}, \quad |z| < |a|$$
Unit Circle
z-plane

- Specification of the z-Transform
 - The z-Transform is a rational function that can be characterized by its zeros and poles.
 - Specification of the z-Transform requires both the algebraic form and its regions of convergence (ROC).

$$a^n u[n] \stackrel{z}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{z}{z-a}, \quad |z| > |a|$$

$$-a^n u[-n-1] \stackrel{z}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{z}{z-a}, \quad |z| < |a|$$



• Example 10.3

$$x[n] = 7\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[n] - 6\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n].$$

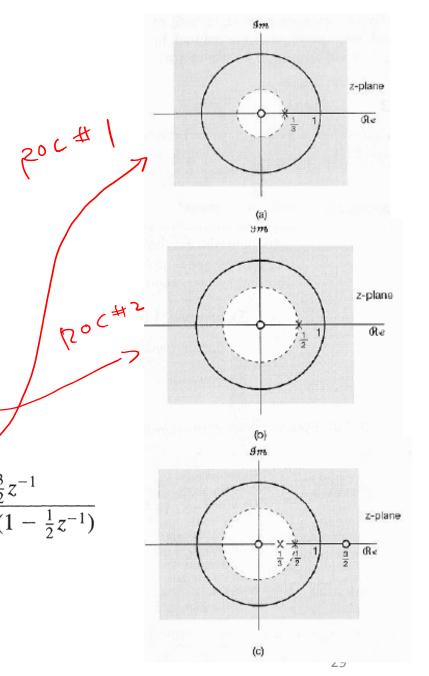
$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \left\{ 7 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right)^n u[n] - 6 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^n u[n] \right\} z^{-n}$$

$$= 7 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{1}{3} \right)^n u[n] z^{-n} - 6 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^n u[n] z^{-n}$$

$$= 7 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{3} z^{-1} \right)^n - 6 \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2} z^{-1} \right)^n$$

$$= \frac{7}{1 - \frac{1}{3} z^{-1}} - \frac{6}{1 - \frac{1}{2} z^{-1}} = \frac{1 - \frac{3}{2} z^{-1}}{(1 - \frac{1}{3} z^{-1})(1 - \frac{1}{2} z^{-1})}$$

$$= \frac{z(z - \frac{3}{2})}{(z - \frac{1}{2})(z - \frac{1}{2})}. \qquad |z| > \frac{1}{2}$$



• Example 10.4

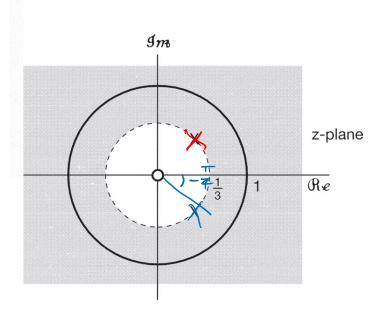
$$x[n] = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n \sin(\frac{\pi}{4}n)u[n]$$
$$= \frac{1}{2j} \left(\frac{1}{3}e^{j\pi/4}\right)^n u[n] - \frac{1}{2j} \left(\frac{1}{3}e^{-j\pi/4}\right)^n u[n]$$

Recall

$$a^n u[n] \stackrel{z}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}}, \quad |z| > |a|.$$

Therefore,

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{2j} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3}e^{j\pi/4}z^{-1}} - \frac{1}{2j} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3}e^{-j\pi/4}z^{-1}}$$
$$= \frac{\frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}z}{\left(z - \frac{1}{3}e^{j\pi/4}\right)\left(z - \frac{1}{3}e^{-j\pi/4}\right)}, \quad |z| > \frac{1}{3}$$



Pole-zero plot and ROC for the z-transform in Example 10.4.

- Property #1
 - The ROC of X(z) consists of a ring in the z-plane centered about the origin.
 - The ROC consists of those values of $z = re^{j\omega}$ for which $x[n]r^{-n}$ has a Fourier transform that converges.
 - The ROC of the z-transform of x[n] consists of the values of z for which $x[n]r^{-n}$ is absolutely summable:

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} |x[n]| r^{-n} < \infty.$$

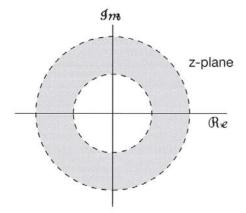


Figure 10.6 ROC as a ring in the z-plane. In some cases, the inner boundary can extend inward to the origin, in which case the ROC becomes a disc. In other cases, the outer boundary can extend outward to infinity.

- Property #2
 - The ROC of X(z) does not contain any poles...

- Property #3
 - If x[n] is of finite duration, then the ROC is the entire z-plane, except possibly z = 0 and/or $z = \infty$.
 - Why?

A finite-duration sequence only has a finite number of nonzero values; therefore,

$$X(z) \triangleq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n} = \sum_{n=N_1}^{N_2} x[n]z^{-n}$$

is bounded for z not equal to 0 or ∞ .

For N_1 negative and N_2 positive, the ROC does not include z = 0 or $z = \infty$ because

as $z \to 0$, terms involving negative power of z becomes unbounded as $z \to \infty$, terms involving positive power of z becomes unbounded

If N_1 is zero or positive, the ROC includes $z = \infty$.

If N_2 is zero or negative, the ROC includes z = 0.

Example 10.5

Consider the z-transform pair

$$\delta[n] \longleftrightarrow \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n] z^{-n} = 1.$$

Its ROC consists of the entire z-plane and includes z = 0 and $z = \infty$. On the other hand, consider the delayed unit impulse $\delta[n-1]$, for which

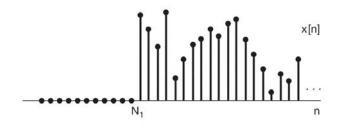
$$\delta[n-1] \longleftrightarrow \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n-1] z^{-n} = z^{-1}.$$

This z-transform is well defined except at z = 0, where there is a pole. Thus its ROC consists of the entire z-plane (including $z = \infty$) but excludes z = 0. Similarly, consider

$$\delta[n+1] \longleftrightarrow \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n+1] z^{-n} = z.$$

The ROC in this case is the entire z-plane (including z = 0) but excludes $z = \infty$.

- Properties #4 & #5
 - If x[n] is a right-sided sequence, and if the circle $|z| = r_0$ is in the ROC, then all finite values of z for which $|z| > r_0$ will also be in the ROC.
 - If x[n] is a left-sided sequence, and if the circle $|z| = r_0$ is in the ROC, then all values of z for which $0 < |z| < r_0$ will also be in the ROC.



$$X(r_0e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=N_1}^{\infty} \left\{ x[n]r_0^{-n} \right\} e^{-j\omega n} < \infty$$

$$X(r_1 e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=N_1}^{\infty} \left\{ x[n] r_1^{-n} \right\} e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$<\sum_{n=N_1}^{\infty}\left\{x[n]r_0^{-n}\right\}e^{-j\omega n}<\infty$$

- For positive n, r_1^{-n} decays faster than r_0^{-n} .
- For negative n, $\sum_{n=N1}^{0} x[n]z^{-n}$ is bounded since x[n] is right-sided.

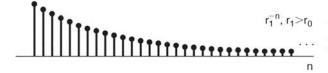


Figure 10.7 With $r_1 > r_0$, $x[n]r_1^{-n}$ decays faster with increasing n than does $x[n]r_0^{-n}$. Since x[n] = 0, $n < N_1$, this implies that if $x[n]r_0^{-n}$ is absolutely summable, then $x[n]r_1^{-n}$ will be also.



- Property #6
 - If x[n] is two sided, and if the circle $|z| = r_0$ is in the ROC, then the ROC will consist of a ring in the z-plane that includes the circle $|z| = r_0$.

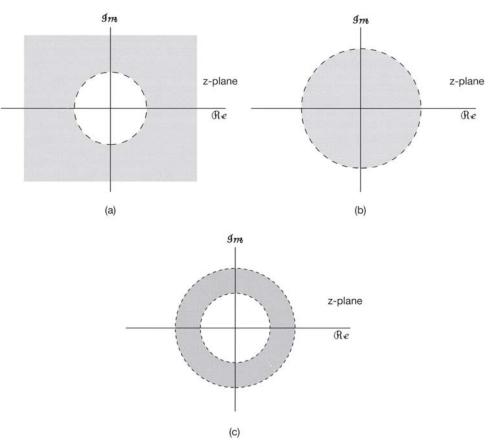


Figure 10.8 (a) ROC for right-sided sequence; (b) ROC for left-sided sequence; (c) intersection of the ROCs in (a) and (b), representing the ROC for a two-sided sequence that is the sum of the right-sided and the left-sided sequence.

• Example 10.6

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} a^n, & 0 \le n \le N-1, \ a > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a^n z^{-n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (az^{-1})^n$$

$$= \frac{1 - (az^{-1})^N}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{1}{z^{N-1}} \frac{z^N - a^N}{z - a}.$$

- x[n] finite length -> entire z-plane as ROC except possibly origin/infinity
- x[n] = 0 for z<0, ROC will extent to infinity but not origin
- This is equivalent to that we have a pole of order N-1 at z=0.

10.2 The ROC of z-Transform

Example 10.6 (cont'd)

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a^n z^{-n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (az^{-1})^n$$

$$= \frac{1 - (az^{-1})^N}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{1}{z^{N-1}} \frac{z^N - a^N}{z - a}.$$

- The N roots of the numerator: $z_k = ae^{j(2\pi k/N)}$, k = 0, 1, ..., N-1.
- The root for k=0 cancels the pole at z=a. The remaining poles

$$z_k = ae^{j(2\pi k/N)}, \quad k = 1, ..., N-1.$$

Example 10.6 (cont'd)

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a^n z^{-n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (az^{-1})^n$$

$$= \frac{1 - (az^{-1})^N}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{1}{z^{N-1}} \frac{z^N - a^N}{z - a}. \quad z_k = ae^{j(2\pi k/N)}, \quad k = 1, \dots, N-1.$$

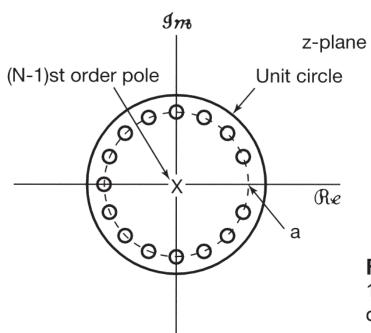


Figure 10.9 Pole-zero pattern for Example 10.6 with N = 16 and 0 < a < 1. The region of convergence for this example consists of all values of z except z = 0.

10.2 The ROC of z-Transform

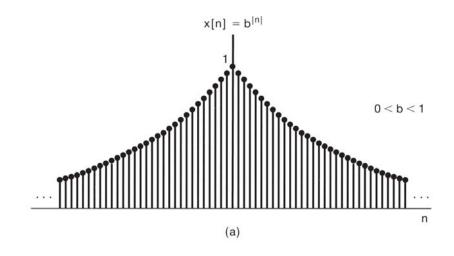
• Example 10.7

$$x[n] = b^{|n|}, \quad b > 0$$

$$= b^{n}u[n] + b^{-n}u[-n-1]$$

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - bz^{-1}} - \frac{1}{1 - b^{-1}z^{-1}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{b^{2} - 1}{b}\right) \frac{z}{(z - b)(z - b^{-1})}, \qquad b < |z| < \frac{1}{b}$$



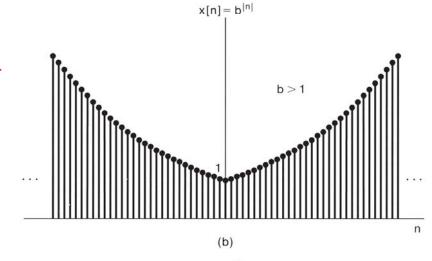


Figure 10.10 Sequence $x[n] = b^{|n|}$ for 0 < b < 1 and for b > 1: (a) b = 0.95; (b) b = 1.05.

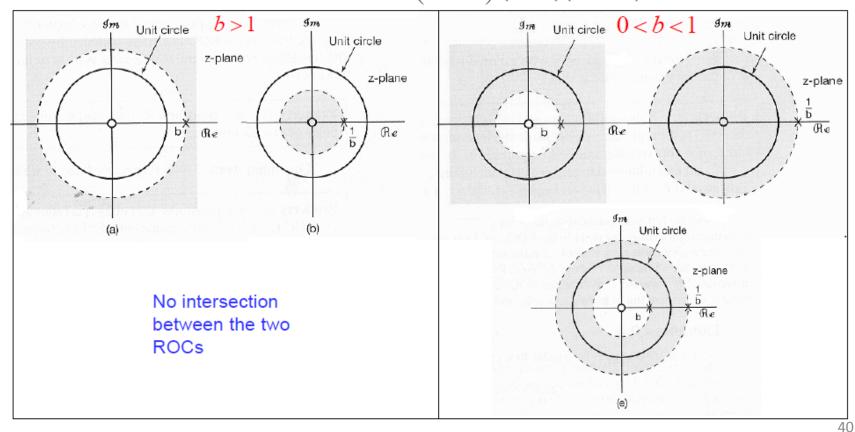
• Example 10.7 (cont'd)

$$x[n] = b^{|n|}, \quad b > 0$$

$$= b^{n}u[n] + b^{-n}u[-n-1]$$

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - bz^{-1}} - \frac{1}{1 - b^{-1}z^{-1}}$$

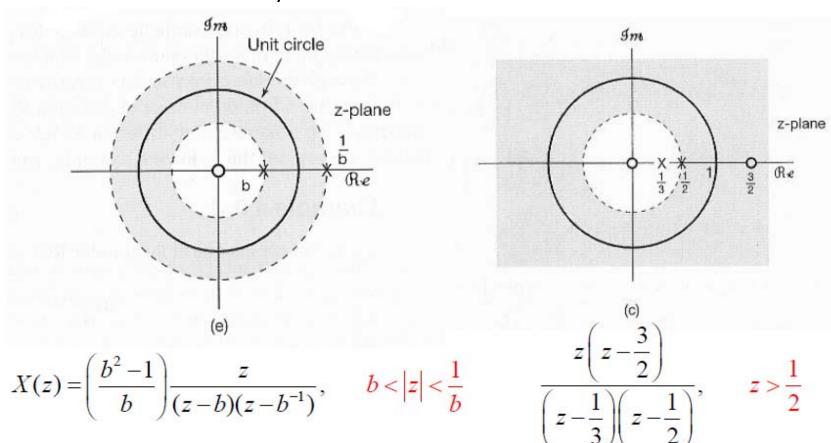
$$= \left(\frac{b^{2} - 1}{b}\right) \frac{z}{(z - b)(z - b^{-1})}, \qquad b < |z| < \frac{1}{b}$$



10.2 The ROC of z-Transform



- Property #7
 - If X(z) is rational, then its ROC is either bounded by poles or extends to infinity.

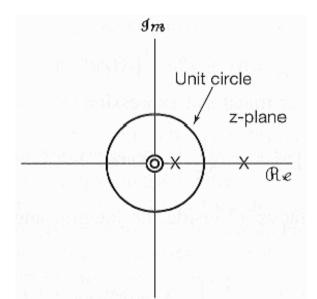


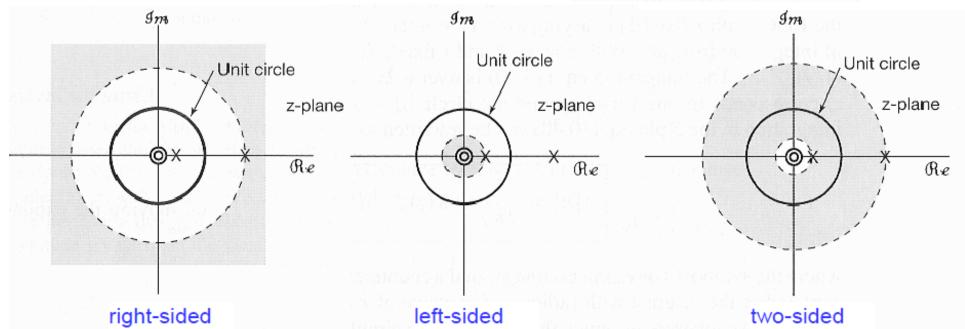
10.2 The ROC of z-Transform

- Property #8: If X(z) is rational,
 - If x[n] is right sided (i.e., x[n]=0 for $n< n_0$), then the ROC is the region in the z-plane outside the outermost pole, i.e., outside the circle of radius equal to the largest magnitude of the poles of X(z).
 - Furthermore, if x[n] is causal (i.e., x[n]=0 for n<0), then the ROC also includes ∞.
- Property #9: If X(z) is rational,
 - If x[n] is left sided, then the ROC is the region in the z-plane inside the innermost pole, i.e., inside the circle of radius equal to the smallest magnitude of the poles of X(z) other than any at z=0, and extending inward to and possibly including z=0.
 - Furthermore, if x[n] is anti-causal (i.e., x[n]=0 for n>0), then the ROC includes 0.

• Example 10.8

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{(1 - \frac{1}{3}z^{-1})(1 - 2z^{-1})}.$$





Method #1

Using IFT to derive IZT

$$X(re^{j\omega}) = \mathcal{F}\left\{x[n]r^{-n}\right\}$$

$$x[n]r^{-n} = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\left\{X(re^{j\omega})\right\} \qquad \forall z = re^{j\omega} \text{ inside the ROC}$$

$$x[n] = r^n \mathcal{F}^{-1}\left\{X(re^{j\omega})\right\} = r^n \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X(re^{j\omega})e^{j\omega n}d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X(re^{j\omega}) \left(re^{j\omega}\right)^n d\omega \qquad z = re^{j\omega}$$

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint X(z)z^{n-1}dz \qquad dz = jre^{j\omega}d\omega = jzd\omega$$

The integration is around a c.c.w. circular contour centered at the origin and with radius r. We may choose any value of r such that |z| = r is in the ROC.

Method #2

Using partial-fraction expansion to obtain IDT

$$X(z) = \frac{A_1}{1 - a_1 z^{-1}} + \frac{A_2}{1 - a_2 z^{-1}} + \dots + \frac{A_m}{1 - a_m z^{-1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow x[n] = A_1 a_1^n u[n] - A_2 a_2^n u[-n-1] + \dots + x_m[n]$$
If ROC outside inside inside z=a₁

Example 10.9: IZT by partial-fraction expansion

$$X(z) = \frac{3 - \frac{5}{6}z^{-1}}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{4}z^{-1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{3}z^{-1}\right)}, \qquad |z| > \frac{1}{3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{4}z^{-1}\right)} + \frac{2}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{3}z^{-1}\right)}$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{n} u[n] \longleftrightarrow \frac{z}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{4}z^{-1}\right)}, \qquad |z| > \frac{1}{4}$$

$$2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n} u[n] \longleftrightarrow \frac{z}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{3}z^{-1}\right)}, \qquad |z| > \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow x[n] = \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{n} u[n] + 2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n} u[n]$$

• Example 10.9~10.11

	$ z < \frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4} < z $	
$\frac{1}{\left(1-\frac{1}{4}z^{-1}\right)}$	$-\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^n u[-n-1]$	$\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^n u[n]$	
	$ z < \frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3} < z $	
$\frac{1}{\left(1-\frac{1}{3}z^{-1}\right)}$	$-\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[-n-1]$	$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[n]$	
	$ z < \frac{1}{4}$	$\left \frac{1}{4} < \left z \right < \frac{1}{3} \right $	$\frac{1}{3} < z $
$\frac{1}{\left(1-\frac{1}{4}z^{-1}\right)}$	$-\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^n u[-n-1]$	$\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^n u[n]$	$\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^n u[n]$
$+\frac{1}{\left(1-\frac{1}{3}z^{-1}\right)}$	$-\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[-n-1]$	$-\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[-n-1]$	$+\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[n]$

• Example 10.12: IZT by power-series expansion

Given
$$X(z) = 4z^2 + 2 + 3z^{-1}$$
, $0 < |z| < \infty$, determine x[n]

According to the definition $X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]z^{-n}$, we have

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 4, & n = -2 \\ 2, & n = 0 \\ 3, & n = 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$= 4\delta[n+2] + 2\delta[n] + 3\delta[n-1]$$

Alternatively, by using the transform pair

$$\delta[n+n_0] \stackrel{Z}{\longleftrightarrow} z^{n_0},$$

we can immediately obtain

$$x[n] = 4\delta[n+2] + 2\delta[n] + 3\delta[n-1].$$

In practice, we may use the Taylor's series expansion to obtain the power series.

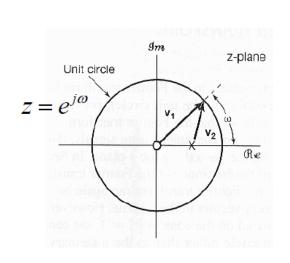
10.4 Geometric Evaluation of the Fourier Transform

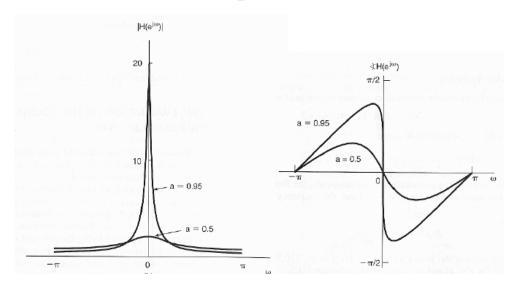
First-Order Systems

$$h[n] = a^n u[n] \stackrel{z}{\longleftrightarrow} H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{z}{z - a}, \quad |z| > |a|.$$

For
$$|a| < 1$$
, ROC includes $|z| = 1 \Rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - ae^{-j\omega}}$.

We can evaluate the DFT by considering the vectors from the poles and zeros of H(z) to the unit circle in the z-plane.





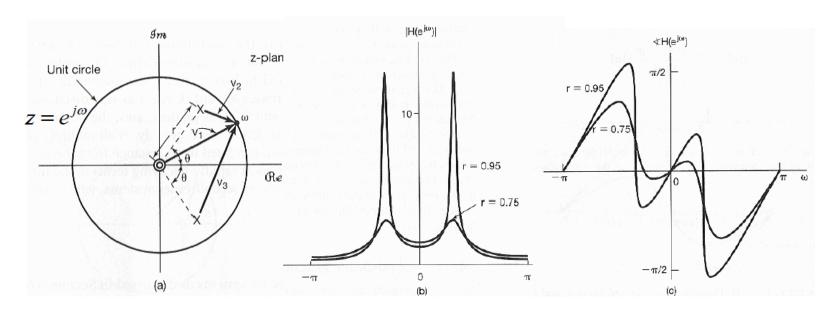
10.4 Geometric Evaluation of the Fourier Transform

Second-Order Systems

$$r^{n} \frac{\sin(n+1)\theta}{\sin\theta} u[n] \longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{1 - 2r\cos\theta e^{-j\omega} + r^{2}e^{-j2\omega}}$$

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 2r\cos\theta z^{-1} + r^{2}z^{-2}} = \frac{z^{2}}{(z - p_{1})(z - p_{2})}, \quad |z| > |a|$$

where 0 < r < 1 and $0 \le \theta \le \pi$. It has poles at $re^{j\theta}$ and $re^{-j\theta}$ and two zeros at z = 0.



Linearity

Linearity
$$X(z) = \sum_{x=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n}$$

$$x_1[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_1(z), \quad \text{ROC} = R_1$$

$$x_2[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_2(z), \quad \text{ROC} = R_2$$

$$ax_1[n] + bx_2[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} aX_1(z) + bX_2(z), \quad \text{with ROC containing } R_1 \cap R_2$$

The ROC expands when there is pole-zero cancellation.

Time Shifting

$$x[n] \xleftarrow{\mathcal{Z}} X(z)$$
, ROC = R
 $x[n-n_0] \xleftarrow{\mathcal{Z}} z^{-n_0} X(z)$, ROC = R except for the possible addition or deletion of the origin or infinity

For example, when $n_0>0$, poles at z=0 are introduced, and hence the origin is deleted from the ROC.

$$X(z) = \sum_{x=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n}$$
$$x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint X(z)z^{n-1}dz$$

Scaling in z

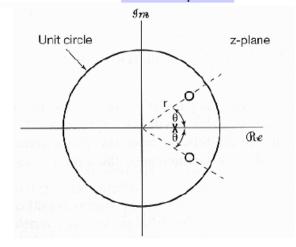
$$x[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z), \qquad \text{ROC} = R$$

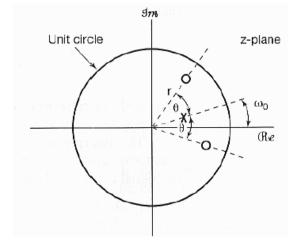
$$z_0^n x[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X\left(\frac{z}{z_0}\right), \qquad \text{ROC} = |z_0|R$$

A scaled version of R: If z is a point in the ROC of X(z), then the point $|z_0|z$ is in the ROC of $X(z/z_0)$.

$$e^{j\omega_0 n}x[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(e^{-j\omega_0}z), \quad \text{ROC} = R$$

a rotation in the z-plane





• Time Reversal

$$x[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$$
, ROC = R
 $x[-n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$, ROC = $\frac{1}{R}$

If z_1 is in the ROC for x[n], then $1/z_1$ is in the ROC for x[-n].

Time Expansion

$$x[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z), \qquad \text{ROC} = R$$

$$x_{(k)}[n] = \begin{cases} x[n/k], & \text{if } n \text{ is a multiple of } k \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$x_{(k)}[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z^k), \qquad \text{ROC} = R^{1/k}$$

$$X(z^k) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n](z^k)^{-n} = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} x[\frac{m}{k}]z^{-m}, \quad m = kn$$

A sequence derived from x[n] by inserting k-1 zeros between successive samples of x[n].

If z is in the ROC of X(z), then $z^{1/k}$ is in the ROC of $X(z^k)$.

When m is a multiple of k, the coefficient of the term z^{-m} equals x[m/k]; otherwise, it is 0.

• Conjugation $x[n] \xleftarrow{\mathcal{Z}} X(z)$, ROC = R $x^*[n] \xleftarrow{\mathcal{Z}} X^*(z^*)$, ROC = R If x(t) is real, $X(z) = X^*(z^*)$. Thus if X(z) has a pole (zero) at $z = z_0$, it must have a pole (zero) at $z = z_0^*$.

Convolution Property

$$x_{1}[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_{1}(z), \qquad \text{ROC} = R_{1}$$

$$x_{2}[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_{2}(z), \qquad \text{ROC} = R_{2}$$

$$x_{1}[n] * x_{2}[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_{1}(z) X_{2}(z), \qquad \text{with ROC containing } R_{1} \cap R_{2}$$

The region $R_1 \cap R_2$ may become larger if pole-zero cancellation occurs in the product

Differentiation in time

$$x[n] \xleftarrow{\mathcal{Z}} X(z)$$
, ROC = R
 $x[n] - x[n-1] \xleftarrow{\mathcal{Z}} (1-z^{-1})X(z)$, ROC = R with the possible deletion of $z = 0$ and/or addition of $z = 1$

Integration in time

$$w[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{n} x[k] = u[n] * x[n]$$

Using the convolution property, we have

$$W(z) = \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}} X(z), \text{ with ROC containing at least } R \cap (|z| > 1)$$

Differentiation in the z-domain

$$x[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z), \qquad \text{ROC} = R$$

$$nx[n] \stackrel{\mathcal{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} -z \frac{dX(z)}{dz}, \qquad \text{ROC} = R$$

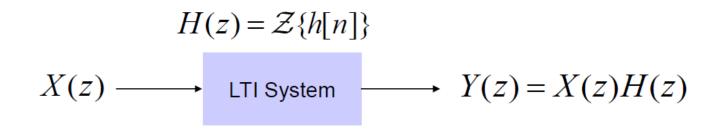
$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n} \Rightarrow \frac{dX(z)}{dz} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} -nx[n]z^{-n-1}$$

The Initial-Value Theorem

If
$$x[n] = 0$$
 for $n < 0$, then $x[0] = \lim_{z \to \infty} X(z)$
Proof: $X(z) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n} = x[0] + x[1]z^{-1} + x[2]z^{-2}$
 $\therefore \lim_{z \to \infty} X(z) = x[0]$

Therefore, for a causal sequence x[n], if x[0] is finite, then $\lim_{z\to\infty} X(z)$ must be finite. Consequently, the order of the numerator polynomial cannot be greater than that of the denominator polynomial.

• Many properties of a system are tied to characteristics of the poles, zeroes, and ROC of the system.



H(z): system function or transfer function

Causality

For a causal LTI system, h[n] = 0 for n < 0. Thus h[n] is right-sided. Since $H(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h[n]z^{-n}$ does not include any positive power of z, the ROC of the system must include infinity.

- A DT LTI system is causal if and only if the ROC of the system function H(z) is the exterior of a circle in the zplane, including infinity
- A DT LTI system with a rational H(z) is causal if and only if
 - (a) ROC is exterior of a circle outside the outermost pole;and infinity must be in the ROC
 - (b) Order of numerator ≤ order of denominator

Because H(z) must be finite as z approaches infinity.

Example 10.21 Causality Analysis

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}} + \frac{1}{1 - 2z^{-1}}, \quad |z| > 2$$

Since the ROC is the exterior of a circle outside the outermost pole, the impulse response is right-sided.

$$H(z) = \frac{2 - \frac{5}{2}z^{-1}}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}\right)\left(1 - 2z^{-1}\right)} = \frac{2z^2 - \frac{5}{2}z}{z^2 - \frac{5}{2}z + 1}$$

Numerator degree = Denominator degree

 \Rightarrow The system is causal.

Check:
$$h[n] = \left[\left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^n + 2^n \right] u[n] \Rightarrow h[n] = 0 \text{ for } n < 0$$

- Stability
 - A DT LTI system is stable if and only if the ROC of H(z) includes the unit circle of |z| = 1.
 - A causal LTI system with rational H(z) is stable if and only if all poles of H(z) lie inside the unit circle, i.e., all of the poles have magnitudes < 1.

• Example 10.22

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}} + \frac{1}{1 - 2z^{-1}}, \quad |z| > 2$$

Since the ROC does not include the unit circle ⇒ unstable We can check this result by noting that

$$h[n] = \left[\left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^n + 2^n \right] u[n] \to \infty, \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

If ROC is the region
$$1/2 < |z| < 2 \implies h[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n] - 2^n u[-n-1]$$

⇒ The system is NOT causal, but stable

If
$$ROC = |z| < \frac{1}{2}$$
 \Rightarrow $h[n] = -\left[\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n + 2^n\right]u[-n-1]$

 \Rightarrow The system is neither causal nor stable

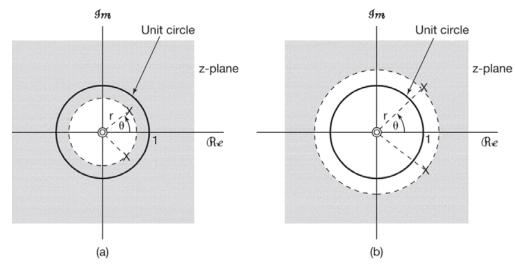
• Example 10.24

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - (2r\cos\theta)z^{-1} + r^2z^{-2}}$$
$$\Rightarrow z_1 = re^{j\theta}, \quad z_2 = re^{-j\theta}$$

To be causal $\Rightarrow |z| > |r|$.

To be stable $\Rightarrow r < 1$.

If r > 1, the poles are outside the unit circle. In this case, since the ROC does not include the unit circle, the system is (a) r < 1; (b) r > 1. unstable.



LTI Systems by Linear Constant-Coeff. Difference Equations

$$a_0 y[n] + a_1 y[n-1] + \dots + a_{N-1} y[n-N+1] + a_N y[n-N]$$

= $b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1] + \dots + b_{M-1} x[n-M+1] + b_M x[n-M]$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k x[n-k]$$

$$x[n] \longrightarrow LTI System \longrightarrow y[n]$$

$$Y(z) = X(z)H(z)$$
 $H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)}$

LTI Systems by Linear Constant-Coeff. Difference Equations (cont'd)

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k x[n-k] \qquad x[n-n_0] \longleftrightarrow z^{-n_0} X(z)$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k y[n-k]\right\} = \mathcal{Z}\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k x[n-k]\right\}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k \mathcal{Z}\left\{y[n-k]\right\} = \sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k \mathcal{Z}\left\{x[n-k]\right\}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k \mathbf{z}^{-k} Y(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k \mathbf{z}^{-k} X(z)$$

$$\Rightarrow H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k z^{-k}}$$
 zeros poles

• Example 10.25

$$y[n] - \frac{1}{2}y[n-1] = x[n] + \frac{1}{3}x[n-1]$$

$$Y(z) - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}Y(z) = X(z) + \frac{1}{3}z^{-1}X(z) \Rightarrow H(z) = (1 + \frac{1}{3}z^{-1})\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}}$$

Two choices of ROC:

- If $|z| > 1/2 \implies h[n]$ is right-sided
- If $|z| < 1/2 \implies h[n]$ is left-sided

If ROC is the region
$$|z| > 1/2$$
, $h[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n] + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1} u[n-1]$

If ROC is the region
$$|z| < 1/2$$
, $h[n] = -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[-n-1] - \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1} u[-n]$,

which is anticausal and unstable.