

EEE336 Signal Processing and Digital Filtering

Lecture 11 Z-Transform

11_1 What is z-transform?

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Why do we need another transform?

- Think about all the transforms you have seen so far
 - Laplace transform, Fourier series, CTFT, DTFT and DFT
- Why do we need another one?
 - Convergence issues with the Fourier transforms:

The DTFT of a sequence exists if and only if the sequence $x[n]$ is absolutely summable, that is, if

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]| < \infty$$
 - DTFT may not exist for certain signals of practical interest or some analytical signals, whose frequency analysis can therefore not be obtained through DTFT

Z-Transform

- A generalization of the DTFT leads to the z-transform that may exist for many signals for which the DTFT does not.
 - DTFT is in fact a special case of the z-transform
 - ...just like the CTFT is a special case of Laplace's transform.
- Importance of z-transform
 - The use of z-transform techniques permits simple algebraic manipulations
 - The z-transform has become an important tool in the analysis and design of digital filters
 - The representation of an LTI discrete-time system in the z-domain is given by its transfer function which is the z-transform of the impulse response of the system

Z-Transform

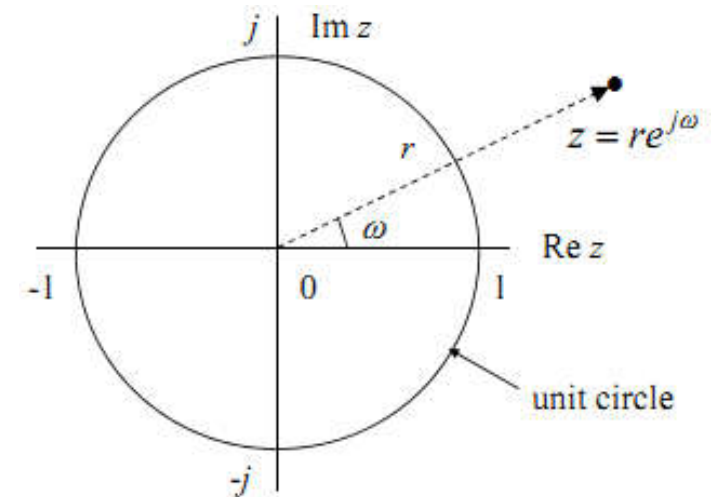
- For a given sequence $x[n]$, its z-transform $X(z)$ is defined as

$$X[z] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]z^{-n} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n](re^{j\omega})^{-n} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]r^{-n}e^{-j\omega n}$$

where z lies in the complex space, that is : $z=a+jb=re^{j\omega}$

- It follows that the DTFT is indeed a special case of the z-transform, specifically, z-transform reduces to DTFT for the special case of $r=1$, that is, $|z|=1$.
- The contour $|z|=1$ is a circle in the z-plane of unit radius \rightarrow the unit circle
- Hence, the DTFT is really the z-transform evaluated on the unit circle.

$$X(\omega) = X[z] \Big|_{e^{j\omega}}$$



Convergence

- Just like the DTFT, z-transform also has its own convergence requirements: $x[n]r^{-n}$ must be absolutely summable, that is,
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]r^{-n}| < \infty$$
- For a given sequence, the set R of values of z for which its z-transform converges is called the region of convergence (ROC).
 - The area where the above condition is satisfied defines the ROC, which in general is an annular region of the z-plane
$$R^- < |z| < R^+ \quad \text{where } 0 \leq R^- < R^+ \leq \infty$$
 - The z-transform must always be specified with its ROC !

DTFT exists only when ROC include $|z|=1$, the unit circle!



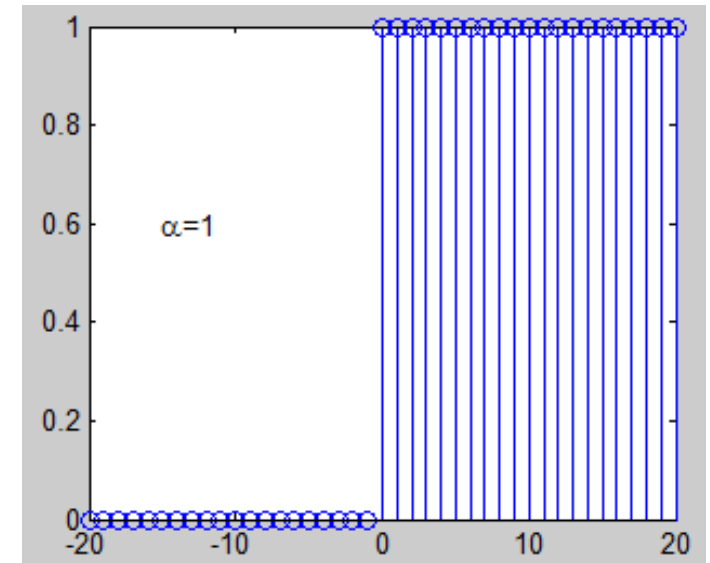
Example 1

- Determine the z-transform and the corresponding ROC of the unit step sequence $u[n]$

$$U[z] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} u[n]z^{-n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^{-n} = 1 + z^{-1} + z^{-2} + \dots + z^{-n} + \dots$$

which converges to

$$U[z] = \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}}, \quad \text{for } |z^{-1}| < 1$$
$$= \frac{z}{z - 1}, \quad \text{for } |z| > 1$$

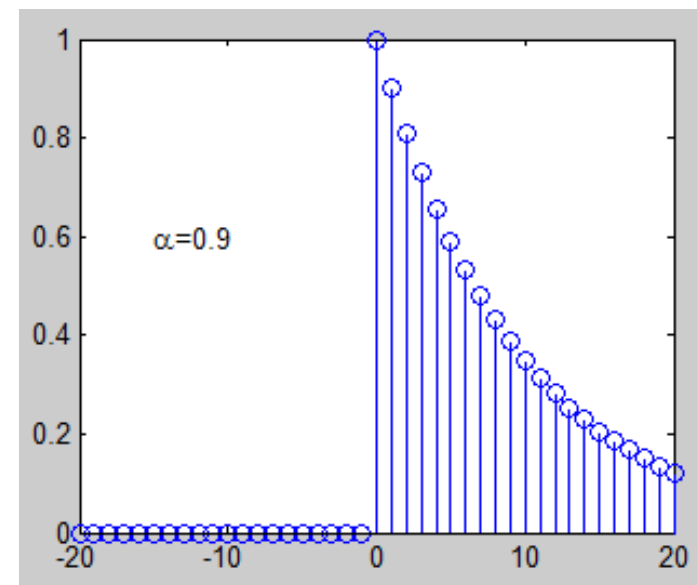
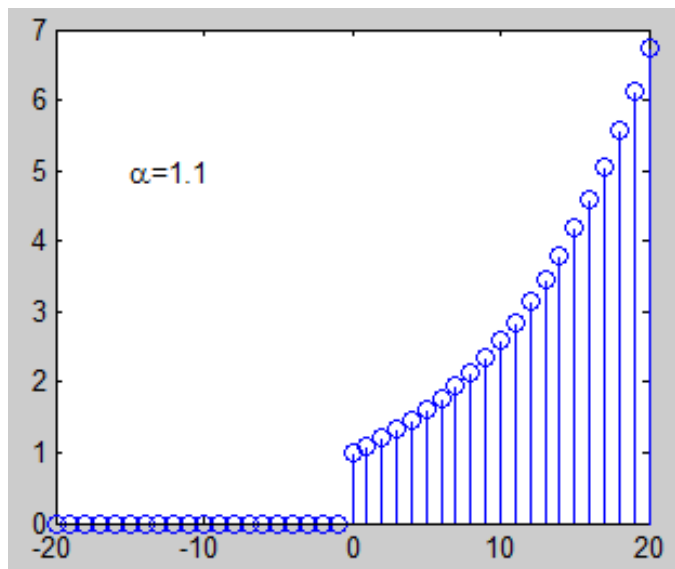
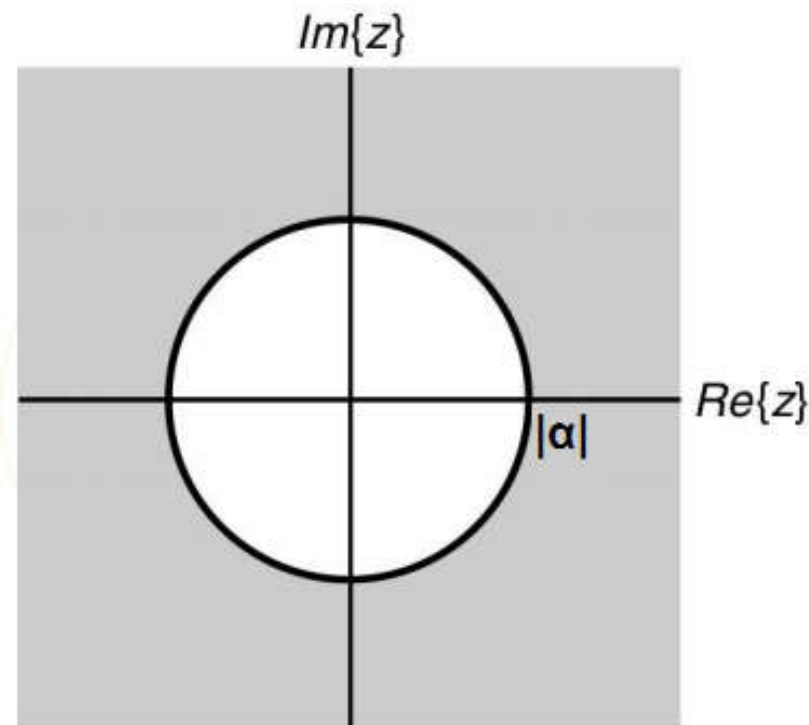


- The region of convergence is the annular region in the z-plane
 $1 < |z| < \infty$

Example 2

- Determine the z-transform and the corresponding ROC of the causal sequence $x[n]=\alpha^n u[n]$ (right-sided)

$$X[z] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha^n u[n] z^{-n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\alpha z^{-1})^n \implies X[z] = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}, \quad \text{for } |\alpha z^{-1}| < 1$$
$$= \frac{z}{z - \alpha}, \quad \text{for } |\alpha| < z$$

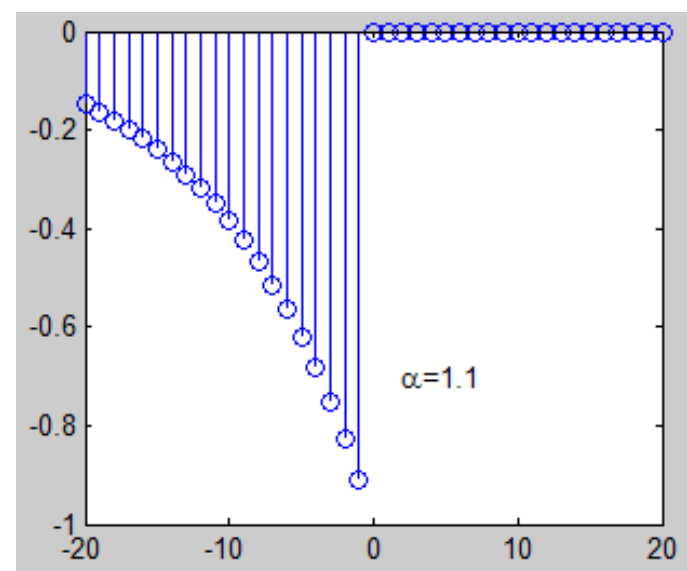
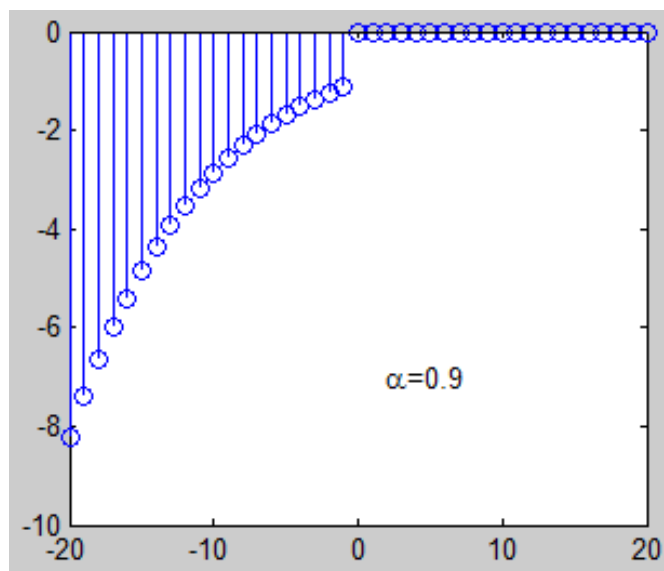
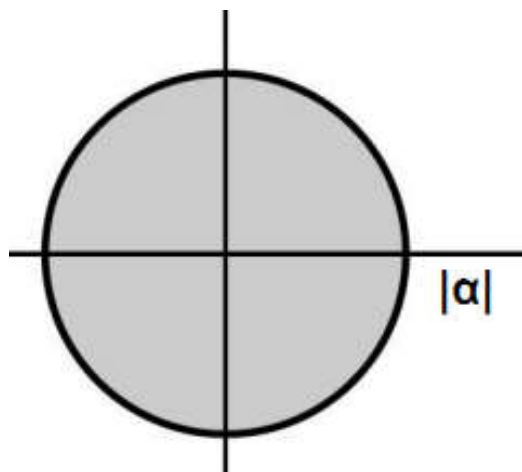


Example 3

Is the same with that in previous slide, but with different ROC

- Now consider the anti-causal $y[n] = -\alpha^n u[-n-1]$ (left-sided)

$$\begin{aligned} Y[z] &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} -\alpha^n u[-n-1] z^{-n} = - \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} \alpha^n z^{-n} = - \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{-m} z^m = -\alpha^{-1} z \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{-m} z^m \\ &= -\frac{\alpha^{-1} z}{1 - \alpha^{-1} z} = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} = \frac{z}{z - \alpha}, \quad \text{for } z < |\alpha| \end{aligned}$$



Impulse response and transfer function

- Impulse responses: $x[n]=\alpha^n u[n]$ and $y[n]=-\alpha^n u[-n-1]$
- Transfer functions:
$$X[z] = \frac{z}{z - \alpha}, \quad \text{for } z > |\alpha|$$
$$Y[z] = \frac{z}{z - \alpha}, \quad \text{for } z < |\alpha|$$
 - The z-transforms of the two sequences $x[n]$ and $y[n]$ are identical even though the two parent sequences are different
 - Only way a unique sequence can be associated with a z-transform is by specifying its ROC
 - Both transfer functions have a pole at $z=\alpha$, which make the transfer function asymptotically approach to infinity at this value. Therefore, $z=\alpha$ is not included in either of the ROCs.



11_1 Wrap up

- Relationships between DTFT and z-transform
 - The reason of introducing z-transform
- Definition of z-transform + ROC
 - Importance of ROC
- Examples and their calculations

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Lecture 11 Z-Transform

11_2 ROC of z-transform

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ROC of the z-transform

$$X[z] = \frac{N[z]}{D[z]} = \frac{z}{z - \alpha}, \quad \text{for } |z| > |\alpha|$$

- In the $X[z]$ given above, $z = 0$ is its *zero*, and $z = \alpha$ is its *pole*.
- The circle with the radius of α is called the *pole circle*. A system may have many poles, and hence many pole circles.
- For right sided sequences, the ROCs extend outside of the outermost pole circle, whereas for left sided sequences, the ROCs are the inside of the innermost pole circle.
- For two-sided sequences, the ROC will be the intersection of the two ROC areas corresponding to the left and right sides of the sequence.

ROC of the z-Transform

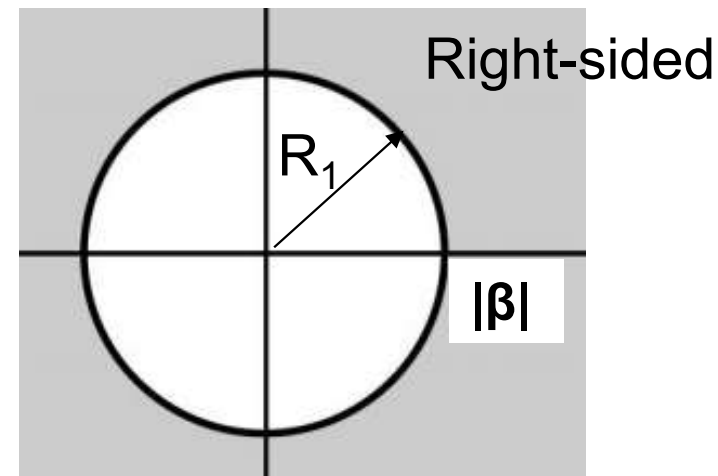
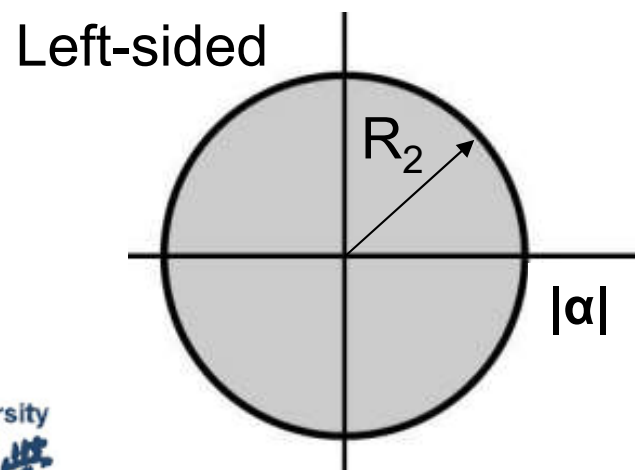
- For double sided sequence:

$$x[n] = \beta^n u[n] - \alpha^n u[-n - 1]$$

- Its z-transform is:

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} + \frac{1}{1 - \beta z^{-1}}$$

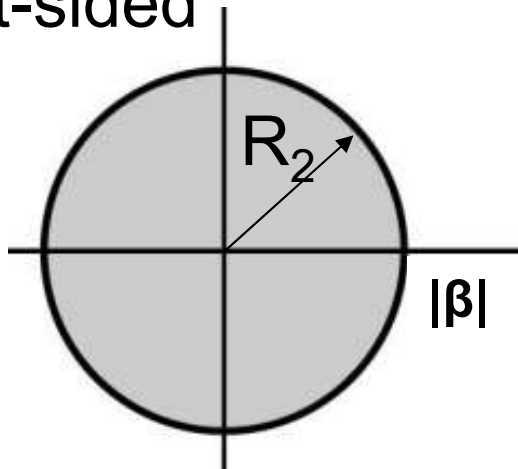
- Two poles of the transfer function: $|z| = |\alpha|$ and $|z| = |\beta|$
- ROC: $|z| > |\beta|$ and $|z| < |\alpha|$



ROC of the z-Transform

- When $R_1 < R_2$

Left-sided

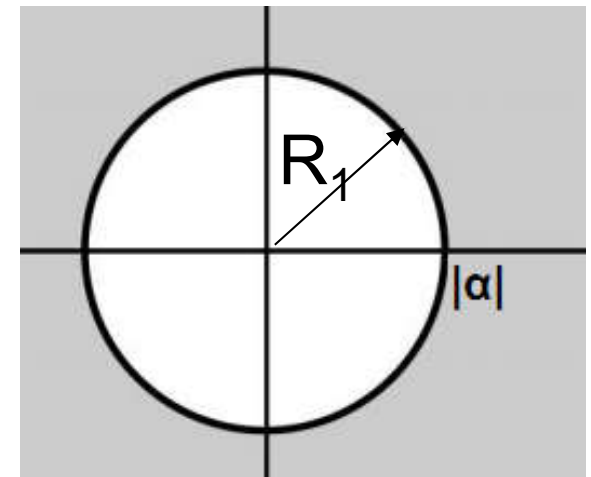


ROC of a left-sided sequence is inside of a circular area

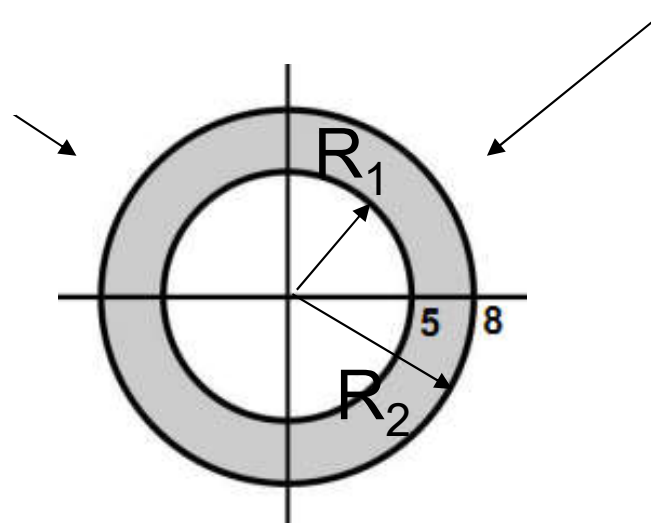
$$R_1 < |z| < R_2$$

if $0 \leq R_1 < R_2 \leq \infty$

Right-sided



ROC of a right-sided sequence is outside of a circular area



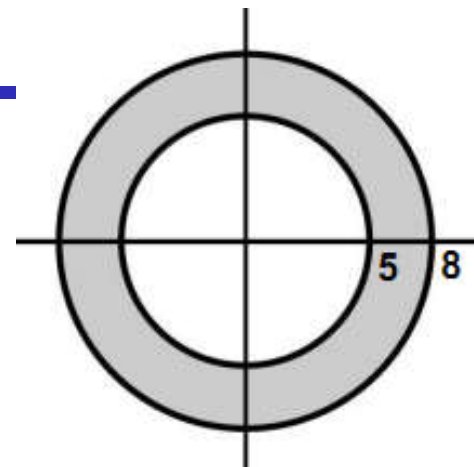
- When $R_1 > R_2$
 - No valid ROC \Rightarrow z-transform doesn't exist.

Example 4

- Consider $x[n]=5^n u[n]-8^n u[-n-1]$

$$X[z] = \frac{z}{z-5} + \frac{z}{z-8}$$

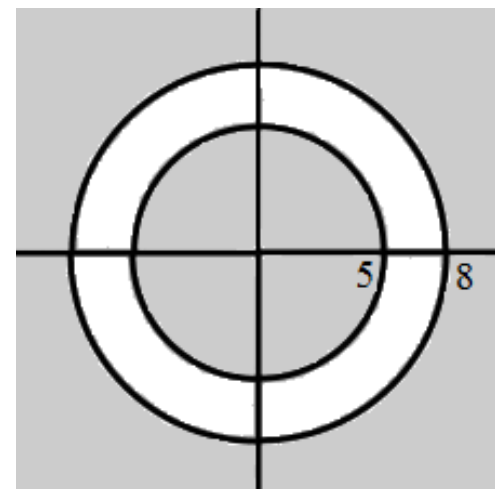
- Corresponding ROCs are $|z|>5$ and $|z|<8$
- Therefore the ROC for this signal is the annular region $5<|z|<8$



- Consider $x[n]=8^n u[n]-5^n u[-n-1]$

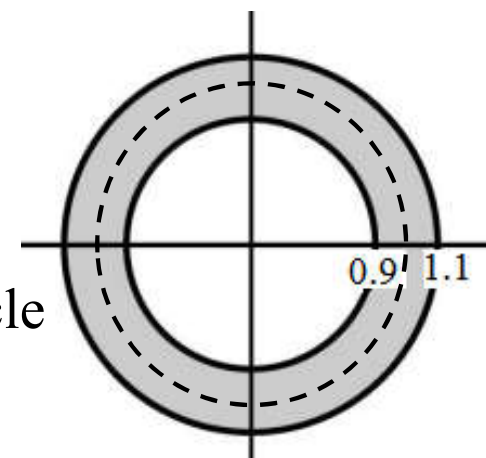
$$X[z] = \frac{z}{z-5} + \frac{z}{z-8}$$

- Corresponding ROCs are $|z|<5$ and $|z|>8$
- Therefore, the z-transform of this sequence does not exist!



Existence of DTFT and z-transform

- Since DTFT is the z-transform evaluated on the unit circle, that is for $z=e^{j\omega}$, DTFT of a sequence exists if and only if the ROC includes the unit circle!
 - The DTFT for $x[n]=5^n u[n]-8^n u[-n-1]$ clearly does not exist, since the ROC does not include the unit circle!
 - Consider the sequence $x[n]=0.9^n u[n]-1.1^n u[-n-1]$
 - Its transfer function is: $X[z] = \frac{z}{z-0.9} + \frac{z}{z-1.1}$
 - with the ROC as $0.9 < |z| < 1.1$, which includes the unit circle
 - Therefore, the DTFT of $x[n]$ exists



The existence of DTFT is not a guarantee for the existence of the z-transform either!

10_2 Wrap up

- Zeroes and poles
- ROC: intersection of all ROCs of the constituents
 - All right sided;
 - All left sided;
 - Double sided.
- Existence of DTFT: ROC includes $|z|=1$

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Lecture 11 Z-Transform

11_3 Inverse z-transform

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Inverse z-transform

- The inverse z-transform is defined as

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X(z) \cdot z^{n-1} dz$$

where C is a counter-clockwise contour encircling the origin in the ROC of X(z) gives the contour integral

- There are three methods for the evaluation of the inverse z-transform in practice
 - ~~– 0. Observe the X[z] and directly get x[n] from the commonly used z-transform pair;~~
 - ~~– 1. Direct evaluation by the contour integration using the Cauchy Residue theorem~~
 - 2. Long division of the numerator by the denominator
 - 3. Partial-fraction expansion and table lookup

Commonly used z-transform pairs

	Signal, $x(n)$	z-Transform, $X(z)$	ROC
1	$\delta(n)$	1	All z
2	$u(n)$	$\frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}}$	$ z > 1$
3	$a^n u(n)$	$\frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}}$	$ z > a $
4	$na^n u(n)$	$\frac{az^{-1}}{(1 - az^{-1})^2}$	$ z > a $
5	$-a^n u(-n - 1)$	$\frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}}$	$ z < a $
6	$-na^n u(-n - 1)$	$\frac{az^{-1}}{(1 - az^{-1})^2}$	$ z < a $
7	$(\cos \omega_0 n)u(n)$	$\frac{1 - z^{-1} \cos \omega_0}{1 - 2z^{-1} \cos \omega_0 + z^{-2}}$	$ z > 1$
8	$(\sin \omega_0 n)u(n)$	$\frac{z^{-1} \sin \omega_0}{1 - 2z^{-1} \cos \omega_0 + z^{-2}}$	$ z > 1$
9	$(a^n \cos \omega_0 n)u(n)$	$\frac{1 - az^{-1} \cos \omega_0}{1 - 2az^{-1} \cos \omega_0 + a^2 z^{-2}}$	$ z > a $
10	$(a^n \sin \omega_0 n)u(n)$	$\frac{az^{-1} \sin \omega_0}{1 - 2az^{-1} \cos \omega_0 + a^2 z^{-2}}$	$ z > a $

Inverse z-Transform by long division

- The z-transform of a causal sequence can be expanded in a power series in z^{-1} .
- For a rational z-transform expressed as a ratio of polynomials in z^{-1} , the power series expansion can be obtained by long division.
- Example – Evaluate the inverse z-transform of

$$H(z) = \frac{1 + 2z^{-1}}{1 + 0.4z^{-1} - 0.12z^{-2}}$$

Using the long division

Not close-form expression, not good enough!



Inverse z-Transform by Partial Fraction Expansion

- A rational $H(z)$ can be expressed as

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{P(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + b_2 z^{-2} + \dots + b_M z^{-M}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2} + \dots + a_N z^{-N}} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^M b_i z^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^N a_i z^{-i}}$$

- If $M \geq N$ then $H(z)$ can be re-expressed through long division

$$H(z) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{M-N} \eta_{\ell} z^{-\ell} + \frac{P_1(z)}{D(z)}$$

$$H(z) = \frac{2 + 0.8z^{-1} + 0.5z^{-2} + 0.3z^{-3}}{1 + 0.8z^{-1} + 0.2z^{-2}}$$



$$H(z) = -3.5 + 1.5z^{-1} + \frac{5.5 + 2.1z^{-1}}{1 + 0.8z^{-1} + 0.2z^{-2}}$$

where the degree of $P_1(z)$ is less than N . The rational fraction $P_1(z)/D(z)$ is then called a *proper polynomial*.

Inverse z-Transform by Partial Fraction Expansion

- **Simple Poles:** In most practical cases, the rational z-transform of interest $H(z)$ is a proper fraction with simple poles, then it can be written in the following form

$$H(z) = \frac{A_1}{z - p_1} + \frac{A_2}{z - p_2} + \dots + \frac{A_N}{z - p_N}$$

$$H(z) \cdot z = \frac{z \cdot A_1}{z - p_1} + \frac{z \cdot A_2}{z - p_2} + \dots + \frac{z \cdot A_N}{z - p_N} \iff A_1 (p_1)^n u[n] + A_2 (p_2)^n u[n] + \dots + A_N (p_N)^n u[n]$$

is not the inverse transform of the original $H(z)$ we are interested in

- So, we simply compute the partial fraction of $H(z)/z$, which will then give us the inverse z-transform of $H(z)$

$$\frac{H(z)}{z} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + b_2 z^{-2} + \dots + b_M z^{-M}}{z(z - p_1)(z - p_2) \dots (z - p_N)} = \frac{A_0}{z} + \frac{A_1}{z - p_1} + \frac{A_2}{z - p_2} + \dots + \frac{A_N}{z - p_N}$$



Inverse z-Transform by Partial Fraction Expansion

- The constants A_i , which are the residues at the poles of $H(z)/z$, can be computed as follows:

$$A_i = \left. (z - p_i) \frac{H(z)}{z} \right|_{z=p_i} \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N$$

- Find the inverse z-transform of $H(z)$ given the ROC
 - i) $0.2 < |z| < 0.6$
 - ii) $|z| > 0.6$

$$H(z) = \frac{z^2 + 2z + 1}{z^2 + 0.4z - 0.12}$$

Inverse z-Transform by Partial Fraction Expansion

- **Multiple Poles:** If the z-domain function contains an m-multiple pole, that is, a term as the following is included

$$\frac{H(z)}{z} = \frac{P(z)}{(z-p)^m}$$

- this term is expanded as follows:

$$\frac{H(z)}{z} = \frac{A_1}{z-p} + \frac{A_2}{(z-p)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_{m-1}}{(z-p)^{m-1}} + \frac{A_m}{(z-p)^m}$$

where each coefficient can be computed by taking consecutive derivatives and evaluating the function at the pole

$$A_{m-i} = \frac{1}{(i)!} \left. \frac{d^i \left((z-p)^m \frac{H(z)}{z} \right)}{dz^i} \right|_{z=p} \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1$$
$$= \frac{1}{(i)!} \left. \frac{d^i P(z)}{dz^i} \right|_{z=p} \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1$$

Inverse z-Transform in Matlab

- **[r,p,k]=residuez(num,den)** develops the partial-fraction expansion of a rational z-transform with numerator and denominator coefficients given by vectors **num** and **den**.
 - Vector **r** contains the residues, vector **p** contains the poles, vector **k** contains the direct term constants
- **[num,den]=residuez(r,p,k)** converts a z-transform expressed in a partial-fraction expansion form to its rational form.
- Example: Consider the first question in the exercise, and write it in terms of z^{-1} :

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

```
>> b=[0 1];
```

```
>> a=[2 -3 1];
```

```
>> [r p k]=residuez(b,a);
```

```
r=[1, -1], p=[1 1/2], k=[]
```

$$\Rightarrow X(z) = \frac{1}{1-(1)z^{-1}} + \frac{-1}{1-(0.5)z^{-1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow x[n] = -u[-n-1] - (-1)(0.5)^n u[-n-1], \quad |z| < \frac{1}{2}$$

10_3 Wrap up

- Familiar with the methods for inverse-z transform
 - Directly using the common z-transform pairs
 - Long division
 - Partial Fraction Expansion

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Lecture 11 Z-Transform

11_4 Properties of z-transform

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Z-transform properties

- Linearity

$$x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_1(z)$$

$$x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_2(z)$$

$$x(n) = a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) = a_1 X_1(z) + a_2 X_2(z)$$

- ROC of $X(z)$ is the intersection of ROCs of $X_1(z)$ and $X_2(z)$

- Example

- 1. Determine the z-Transform and the ROC of $x(n) = [3(2^n) - 4(3^n)]u(n)$
- 2. Determine the z-Transform and the ROC of $x[n] = \alpha^n u[n] - b^n u[-n - 1]$
- 3. Determine the z-Transform and the ROC of $x[n] = (\cos \omega_0 n)u(n)$

Z-transform properties

- Time-shifting $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z)$

$$x(n-k) \xleftrightarrow{z} z^{-k} X(z)$$

And the ROC remains unchanged except for $z = 0$ if $k > 0$ and
 $z = \infty$ if $k < 0$

- Example
 - Determine the z-Transform of the signal

$$x(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq n \leq N-1 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Z-transform properties

- Scaling in the z-domain

$$x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z), \quad \text{ROC: } r_1 < |z| < r_2$$

$$a^n x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(a^{-1}z), \quad \text{ROC: } |a|r_1 < |z| < |a|r_2$$

For any constant a

- Example

- Determine the z-transform and its ROC of the causal sequence

$$x(n) = r^n (\cos \omega_0 n) u(n)$$

$$x(n) = r^n (\sin \omega_0 n) u(n)$$

Z-transform properties

- Time Reversal

$$x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z), \quad \text{ROC: } r_1 < |z| < r_2$$

$$x(-n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z^{-1}), \quad \text{ROC: } \frac{1}{r_2} < |z| < \frac{1}{r_1}$$

- Example

- Determine the z-transform and its ROC of $x(n) = u(-n)$

Z-transform properties

- Differentiation in the z-Domain

$$x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z)$$

$$nx(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} -z \frac{dX(z)}{dz}$$

ROC remains unchanged

- Example
 - Find the z-Transform of $x(n) = na^n u(n)$

Z-transform properties

- Convolution of Two Sequences

$$x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_1(z) \quad \text{and} \quad x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_2(z)$$

$$x(n) = x_1(n) * x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) = X_1(z)X_2(z)$$

The ROC is the intersection of that for $X_1(z)$ and $X_2(z)$

Z-transform properties

- Parseval's relation

$$x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_1(z) \quad \text{and} \quad x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_2(z)$$

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n) x_2^*(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X_1(v) X_2^*\left(\frac{1}{v^*}\right) v^{-1} dv$$

11_4 Wrap up

Property	Time Domain	z -Domain	ROC
Notation	$x(n)$	$X(z)$	ROC: $r_2 < z < r_1$
	$x_1(n)$	$X_1(z)$	ROC ₁
	$x_2(n)$	$X_2(z)$	ROC ₂
Linearity	$a_1x_1(n) + a_2x_2(n)$	$a_1X_1(z) + a_2X_2(z)$	At least the intersection of ROC ₁ and ROC ₂
Time shifting	$x(n - k)$	$z^{-k}X(z)$	That of $X(z)$, except $z = 0$ if $k > 0$ and $z = \infty$ if $k < 0$
Scaling in the z -domain	$a^n x(n)$	$X(a^{-1}z)$	$ a r_2 < z < a r_1$
Time reversal	$x(-n)$	$X(z^{-1})$	$\frac{1}{r_1} < z < \frac{1}{r_2}$
Conjugation	$x^*(n)$	$X^*(z^*)$	ROC
Real part	$\text{Re}\{x(n)\}$	$\frac{1}{2}[X(z) + X^*(z^*)]$	Includes ROC
Imaginary part	$\text{Im}\{x(n)\}$	$\frac{1}{2}j[X(z) - X^*(z^*)]$	Includes ROC
Differentiation in the z -domain	$nx(n)$	$-z \frac{dX(z)}{dz}$	$r_2 < z < r_1$
Convolution	$x_1(n) * x_2(n)$	$X_1(z)X_2(z)$	At least, the intersection of ROC ₁ and ROC ₂
Correlation	$r_{x_1x_2}(l) = x_1(l) * x_2(-l)$	$R_{x_1x_2}(z) = X_1(z)X_2(z^{-1})$	At least, the intersection of ROC of $X_1(z)$ and $X_2(z^{-1})$
Initial value theorem	If $x(n)$ causal	$x(0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} X(z)$	
Multiplication	$x_1(n)x_2(n)$	$\frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X_1(v)X_2\left(\frac{z}{v}\right)v^{-1}dv$	At least, $r_{11}r_{21} < z < r_{1\infty}r_{2\infty}$
Parseval's relation	$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n)x_2^*(n)$	$= \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X_1(v)X_2^*(1/v^*)v^{-1}dv$	

EEE336 Signal Processing and Digital Filtering

Lecture 11 Z-Transform

11_5 Zeroes and Poles

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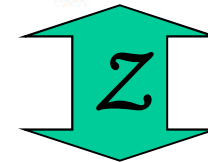
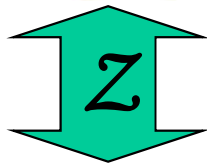
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Rational z-transform

- The z-transforms of LTI systems can be expressed as a ratio of two polynomials in z^{-1} , hence they are rational transforms.
 - Starting with the constant coefficient linear difference equation (CCLDE) representation of an LTI system:

$$\sum_{i=0}^N a_i y[n-i] = \sum_{j=0}^M b_j x[n-j], \quad a_0 = 1$$

$$y[n] + a_1 y[n-1] + a_2 y[n-2] + \cdots + a_N y[n-N] = b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1] + \cdots + b_M x[n-M]$$



$$Y[z] + a_1 z^{-1} Y[z] + a_2 z^{-2} Y[z] + \cdots + a_N z^{-N} Y[z] = X[z] + b_1 z^{-1} X[z] + b_2 z^{-2} X[z] + \cdots + b_M z^{-M} X[z]$$

$$\Rightarrow H[z] = \frac{Y[z]}{X[z]} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + b_2 z^{-2} + \cdots + b_M z^{-M}}{a_0 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2} + \cdots + a_N z^{-N}}$$

A ratio of two polynomials

Degree of H(z) is max{M,N}

Rational z-transform

- A rational z-transform can be alternately written in factored form as

$$H(z) = \frac{b_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^M (1 - \zeta_{\ell} z^{-1})}{a_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^N (1 - p_{\ell} z^{-1})} = z^{(N-M)} \frac{p_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^M (z - \zeta_{\ell})}{d_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^N (z - p_{\ell})}$$

- At a root $z = \zeta_{\ell}$ of the numerator polynomial, $H(\zeta_{\ell}) = 0$ and these values of z are called the **zeroes** of $H(z)$
- At a root $z = p_{\ell}$ of the denominator polynomial $H(p_{\ell}) \rightarrow \infty$, and as a result, these values of z are known as the **poles** of $H(z)$
- There are M finite zeroes and N finite poles of $H(z)$
- There are additional $(N-M)$ zeros at the origin if $N > M$ or $(N-M)$ poles at $z = 0$ if $N < M$

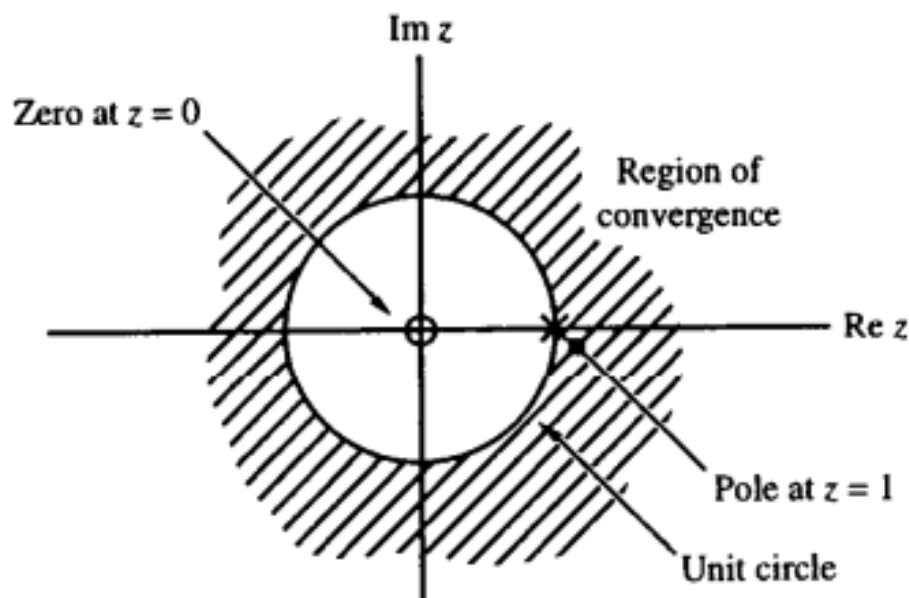


Rational z-transform

- Example: z-Transform of the Unit Step

$$\mu(z) = \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}} = \frac{z}{z - 1} \quad \begin{cases} \text{zero: } z = 0 \\ \text{pole: } z = 1 \end{cases}$$

- The region of convergence in the z-plane

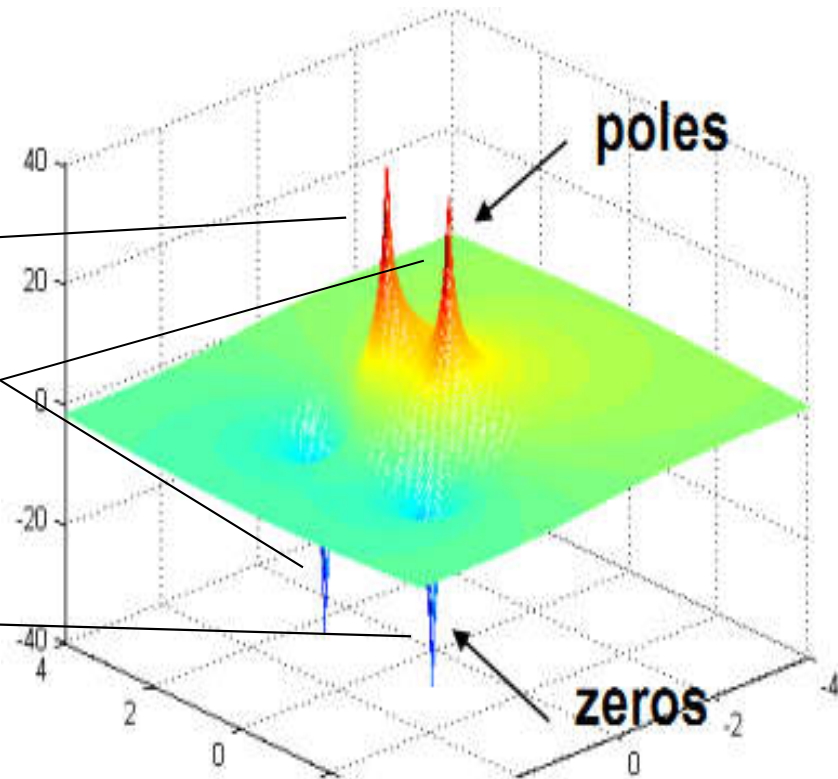
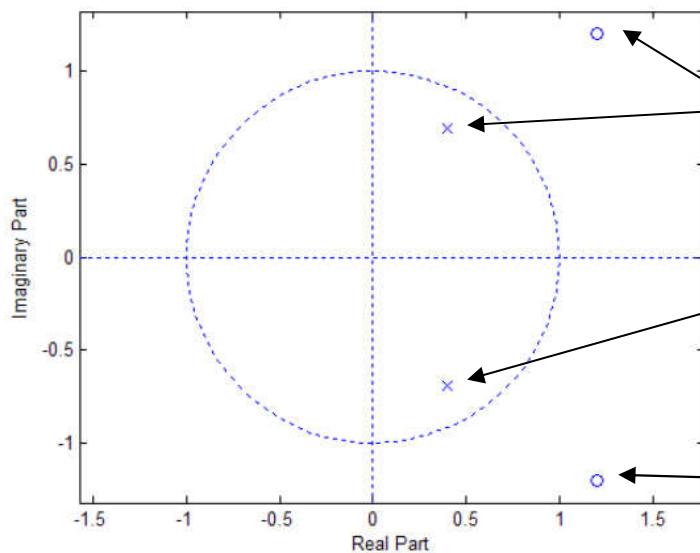


The ROC of a rational z-transform is bounded by the locations of its poles

- Example: A physical interpretation of the concepts of poles and zeros can be given by plotting the log-magnitude $20\log_{10}|G(z)|$ of $G(z)$

$$G(z) = \frac{1 - 2.4z^{-1} + 2.88z^{-2}}{1 - 0.8z^{-1} + 0.64z^{-2}}$$

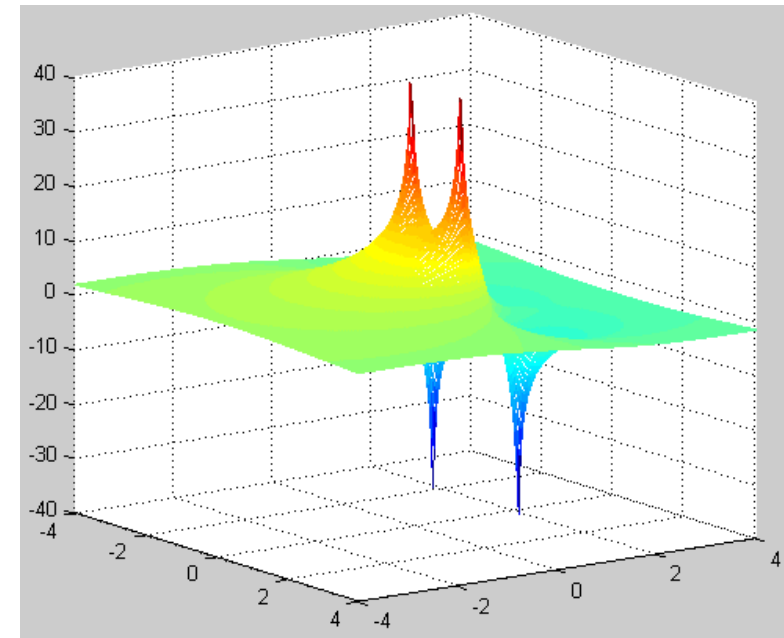
The poles are at $z = 0.4 \pm j0.6928$
The zeroes are at $z = 1.2 \pm j1.2$



```

clear;
close all;
N=256;
rez=linspace(-4,4,N);
imz=linspace(-4,4,N);
%create a uniform z-plane
for n=1:N
    z(n,:)=ones(1,N).*rez(n)+j*ones(1,N).*imz(1:N);
end
%Compute the H function on the z-plane
for n=1:N
    for m=1:N
        Hz(n,m)=(1-2.4*z(n,m)^(-1)+2.88*z(n,m)^(-2))/(1-0.8*z(n,m)^(-1)+0.64*z(n,m)^(-2));
    end
end
%Logarithmic mesh plot of the H function
mesh(rez, imz, 20*log10(abs(Hz)))

```



- Matlab has simple functions to determine and plot the poles and zeros of a function in the z-plane

– **tf2zpk()** : **[Z,P,K]=tf2zpk(NUM,DEN)** finds the zeros, poles, and gain.

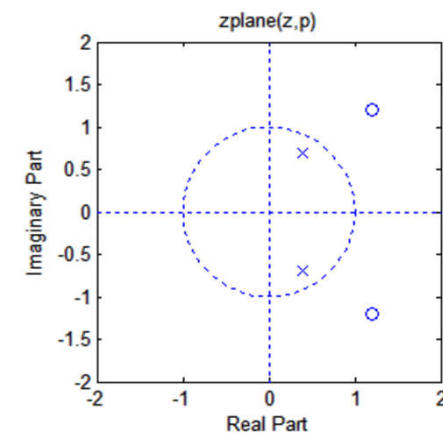
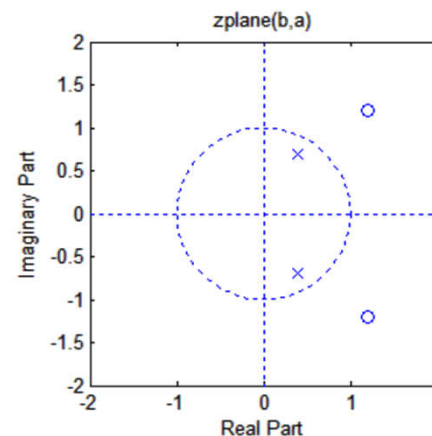
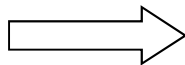
b=[1 -2.4 2.88];	\Rightarrow	z = 1.2000 + 1.2000i
a=[1 -0.8 0.64];		1.2000 - 1.2000i
[z,p,k] = tf2zpk(b,a)		p = 0.4000 + 0.6928i
		0.4000 - 0.6928i
		k=1

– **[num,den] = zp2tf(z,p,k)** implements the reverse process

– **zplane()** : **zplane(Z,P)** plots the zeros Z and poles P (in column vectors) with the unit circle for reference.

zplane(B,A) plots the poles and zeros of $B(z)/A(z)$ where B and A are row vectors containing transfer function polynomial coefficients

zplane(b,a);
zplane(z,p);



Frequency Response

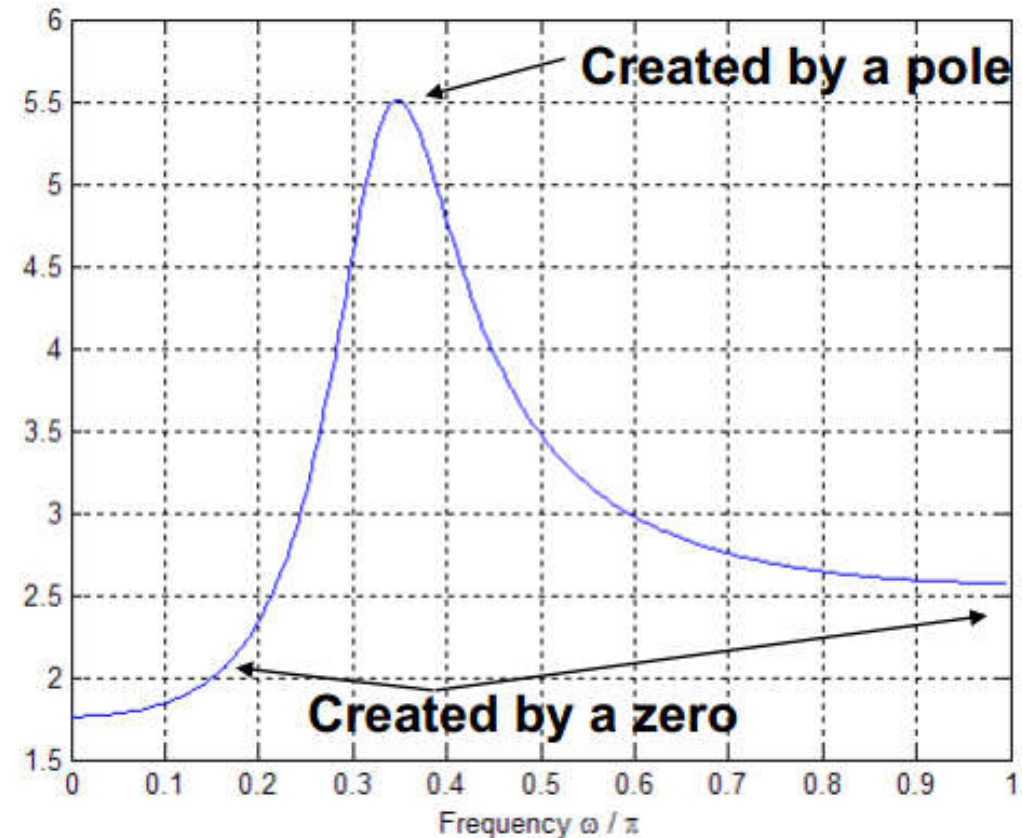
$$G(z) = \frac{1 - 2.4z^{-1} + 2.88z^{-2}}{1 - 0.8z^{-1} + 0.64z^{-2}}$$

(Numerator) b- coefficients

(Denominator) a- coefficients

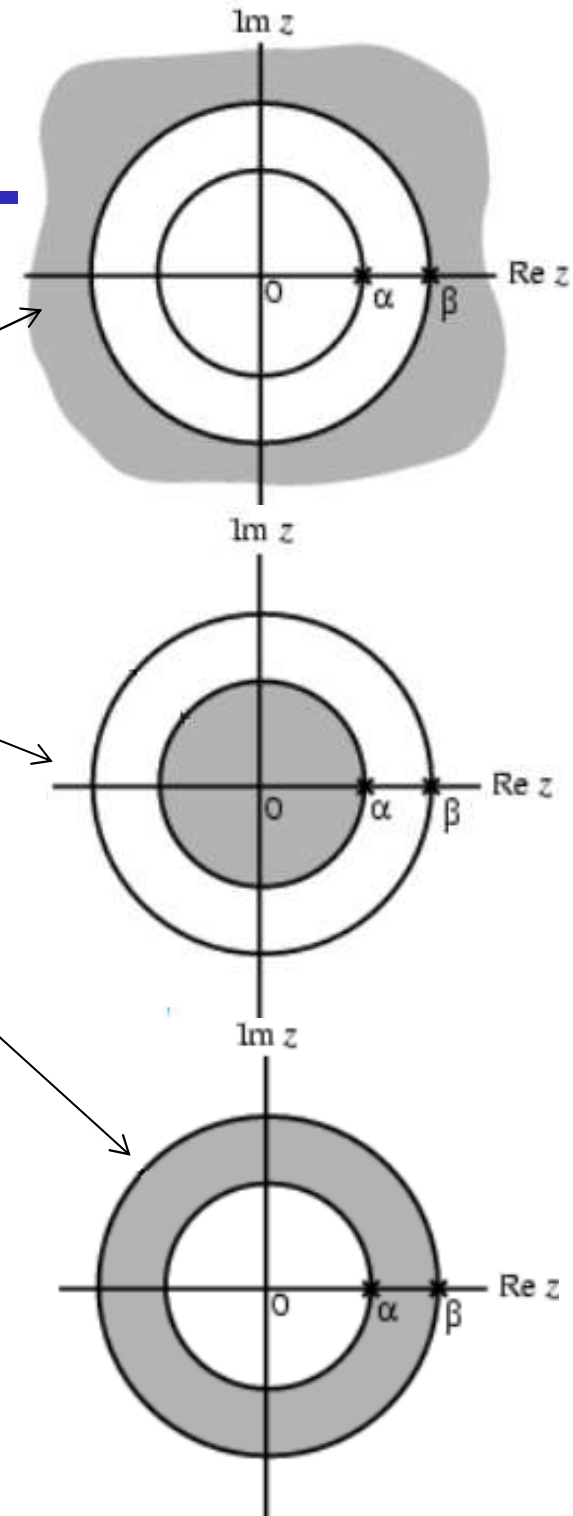
```
[H w]=freqz([1 -2.4 2.88],[1 -0.8 0.64],256);  
figure  
plot(w/pi, abs(H))  
grid  
title('Transfer function')  
xlabel('Frequency \omega / \pi')
```

This system has two zeros at $z=1.2 \pm j1.2$ and two poles at $z=0.4 \pm j0.6928$



Poles and Zeros

- The ROC of a rational z-transform cannot contain any poles and is bounded by the poles
 - For a right sided sequence, the ROC is outside of the largest pole
 - For a left sided sequence, the ROC is inside of the smallest pole
 - For a two sided sequence, some of the poles contribute to terms in the parent sequence for $n < 0$ and other to terms for $n > 0$. Therefore, the ROC is between two circular regions: outside of the largest pole coming from the $n > 0$ sequence and inside of the smallest pole coming from the $n < 0$ sequence.
 - If the sequence is of finite length, then the ROC includes the entire z-plane, except possibly $z=0$ and/or $z=\infty$.



Stability & ROC

- Now, for an LTI system to be stable it must be absolutely summable, or in other words, it must have a DTFT. But for a system to have a DTFT, its ROC must include the unit circle.

➡ An LTI system is stable, if and only if the ROC of its transfer function $H(z)$ includes the unit circle!

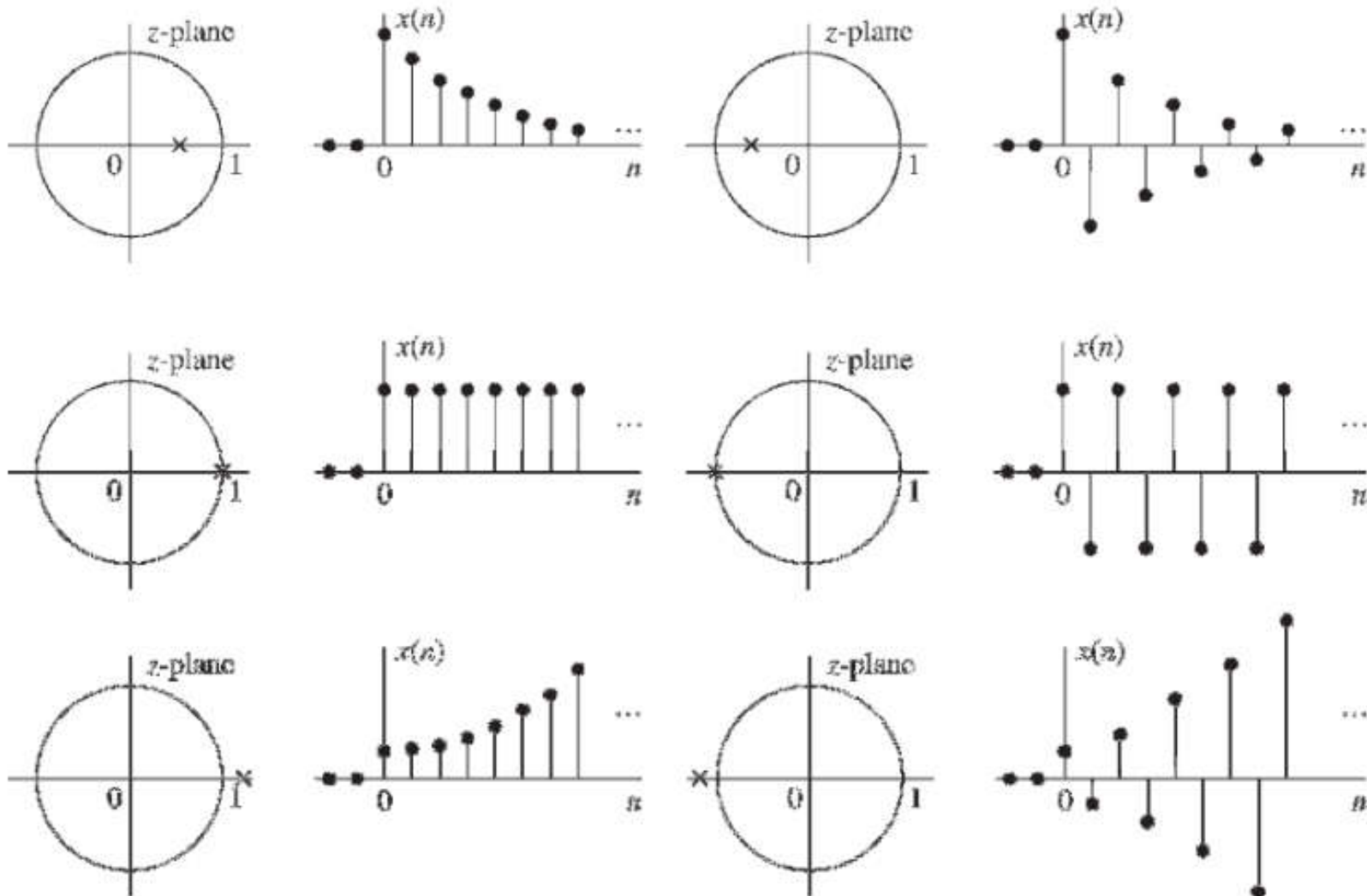
- Furthermore, a causal system's ROC lies outside of a pole circle. If that system is also stable, its ROC must include unit circle

➡ Then a causal system is stable, if and only if, all poles are inside the unit circle!

- Similarly, an anti-causal system is stable, if and only if its poles lie outside the unit circle.

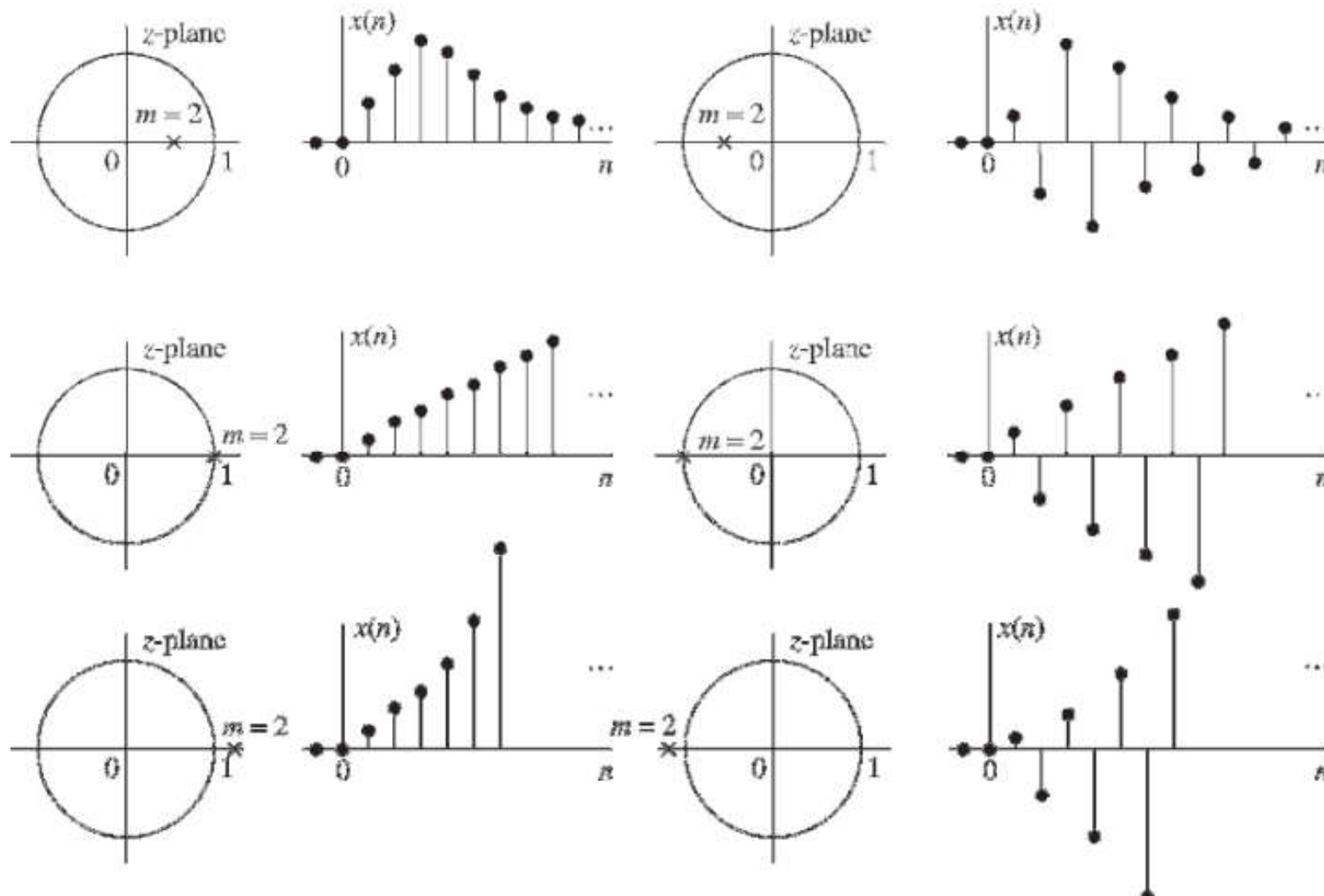
Behavior of a Single Real-Pole Causal Signal

$$x(n) = a^n u(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}}, \quad \text{ROC: } |z| > |a|$$



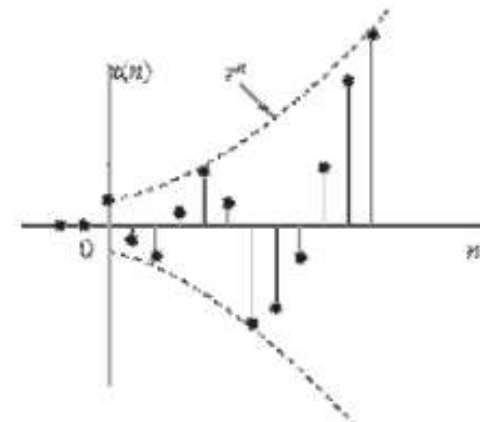
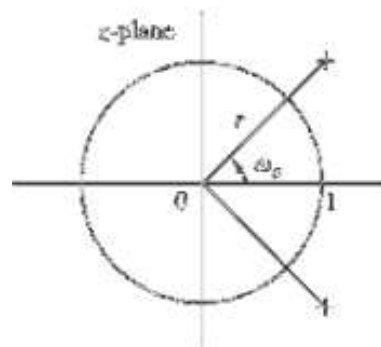
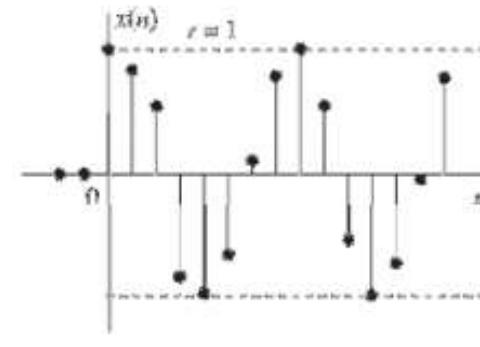
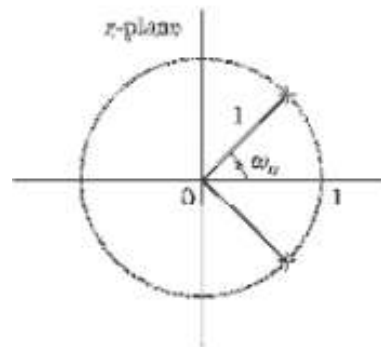
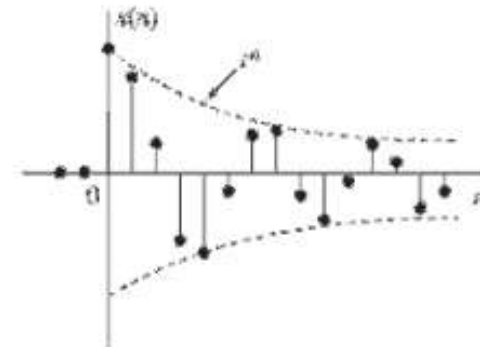
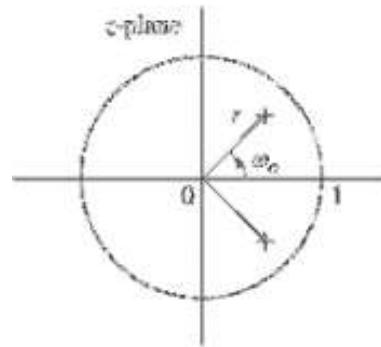
Behavior of a Double Real-Pole Causal Signal

$$x(n) = na^n u(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) = \frac{1}{(1 - az^{-1})^2}, \quad \text{ROC: } |z| > |a|$$



Behavior of a Causal Signal with a Pair of Complex-Conjugate Poles

$$x(n) = (r^n \cos \omega_0 n) u(n)$$



11_5 Wrap up

- Analysing the transfer function:
 - Representation: polynomial ratio VS factor form
 - Roots of numerator \rightarrow zeroes $\rightarrow H(\text{zero}) = 0$
 - Roots of denominator \rightarrow poles $\rightarrow H(\text{pole}) \rightarrow \infty$
 - Pole circles: bounds the ROC
 - For an LTI system to be causal and stable
 - ROC includes $|z|=1$
 - Right sided
- } All poles inside the unit circle

EEE336 Signal Processing and Digital Filtering

Lecture 11 Z-Transform

11_6 Transfer Functions and Frequency Responses

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CCLDE coefficients

- All discrete systems can be represented using **Constant Coefficient, Linear Difference Equations** (CCLDE), of the form

$$y[n] + a_1 y[n-1] + a_2 y[n-2] + \cdots + a_N y[n-N] = b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1] + \cdots + b_M x[n-M]$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^N a_i y[n-i] = \sum_{j=0}^M b_j x[n-j], \quad a_0 = 1$$

- The function $H(z)$, which is the z-transform of the impulse response $h[n]$ of the LTI system, is called the transfer function
 - Using the CCLDE coefficients

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k}} = z^{(N-M)} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{M-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{N-k}} = \frac{b_0}{a_0} \cdot \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (1 - \zeta_k z^{-1})}{\prod_{k=1}^N (1 - p_k z^{-1})} = \frac{b_0}{a_0} z^{(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - \zeta_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - p_k)}$$

CCLDE coefficients (pointing to b_k and a_k)

Zeros & poles (pointing to ζ_k and p_k)

Zero & pole factors (pointing to $(z - \zeta_k)$ and $(z - p_k)$)

Frequency response and the transfer function

- If the ROC of the transfer function $H(z)$ includes the unit circle, then the frequency response $H(\omega)$ of the LTI digital filter can be obtained simply as follows:

$$H(\omega) = H(e^{j\omega}) = H(z) \Big|_{z=e^{j\omega}}$$

- So the frequency response of a typical LTI system is

$$H(z) = \frac{b_0}{a_0} z^{(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - \zeta_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - p_k)} \quad \rightarrow \quad H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{b_0}{a_0} e^{j\omega(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (e^{j\omega} - \zeta_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (e^{j\omega} - p_k)}$$

- From which we can obtain the magnitude and phase response

$$\left| H(e^{j\omega}) \right| = \left| \frac{b_0}{a_0} \right| \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M |e^{j\omega} - \zeta_k|}{\prod_{k=1}^N |e^{j\omega} - p_k|}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \arg H(e^{j\omega}) &= \arg(b_0 / a_0) + \omega(N-M) \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=1}^M \arg(e^{j\omega} - \zeta_k) - \sum_{k=1}^N \arg(e^{j\omega} - p_k) \end{aligned}$$

Frequency response and the transfer function

$$\left| H(e^{j\omega}) \right| = \left| \frac{b_0}{a_0} \right| \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M |e^{j\omega} - \zeta_k|}{\prod_{k=1}^N |e^{j\omega} - p_k|}$$

- The magnitude response $|H(\omega)|$ at a specific value of ω is given by the product of the distances to all zeros divided by the product of the distances to all poles!

$$\arg H(e^{j\omega}) = \arg(b_0 / a_0) + \omega(N - M) + \sum_{k=1}^M \arg(e^{j\omega} - \zeta_k) - \sum_{k=1}^N \arg(e^{j\omega} - p_k)$$

- The phase response at a specific value of ω is obtained by adding the phase of the term b_0/a_0 and the linear-phase term $\omega(N-M)$ to the sum of the angles of the zero vectors minus the angles of the pole vectors



Frequency response by pole and zero distances

- Example:

- The transfer function of a filter has zeros at $z_o = r_o e^{\pm j\theta_o}$ and poles at $z_p = r_p e^{\pm j\theta_p}$, thus

$$H(z) = \frac{(z - r_o e^{j\theta_o})(z - r_o e^{-j\theta_o})}{(z - r_p e^{j\theta_p})(z - r_p e^{-j\theta_p})} = \frac{z^2 - 2r_o \cos \theta_o z + r_o^2}{z^2 - 2r_p \cos \theta_p z + r_p^2}$$

- Choosing $r_o = 1.2$, $\theta_o = 30^\circ$, $r_p = 0.9$, $\theta_p = 60^\circ$

$$H(z) = \frac{z^2 - 2.078z + 1.440}{z^2 - 0.900z + 0.810}$$

- The frequency response at ω is given by

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{(e^{j\omega} - r_o e^{j\theta_o})(e^{j\omega} - r_o e^{-j\theta_o})}{(e^{j\omega} - r_p e^{j\theta_p})(e^{j\omega} - r_p e^{-j\theta_p})} = \frac{\vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_2}{\vec{u}_3 \vec{u}_4}$$

- Where the \vec{u}_k are complex phasors pointing from a zero or pole to the point $e^{j\omega}$ on the unit circle.



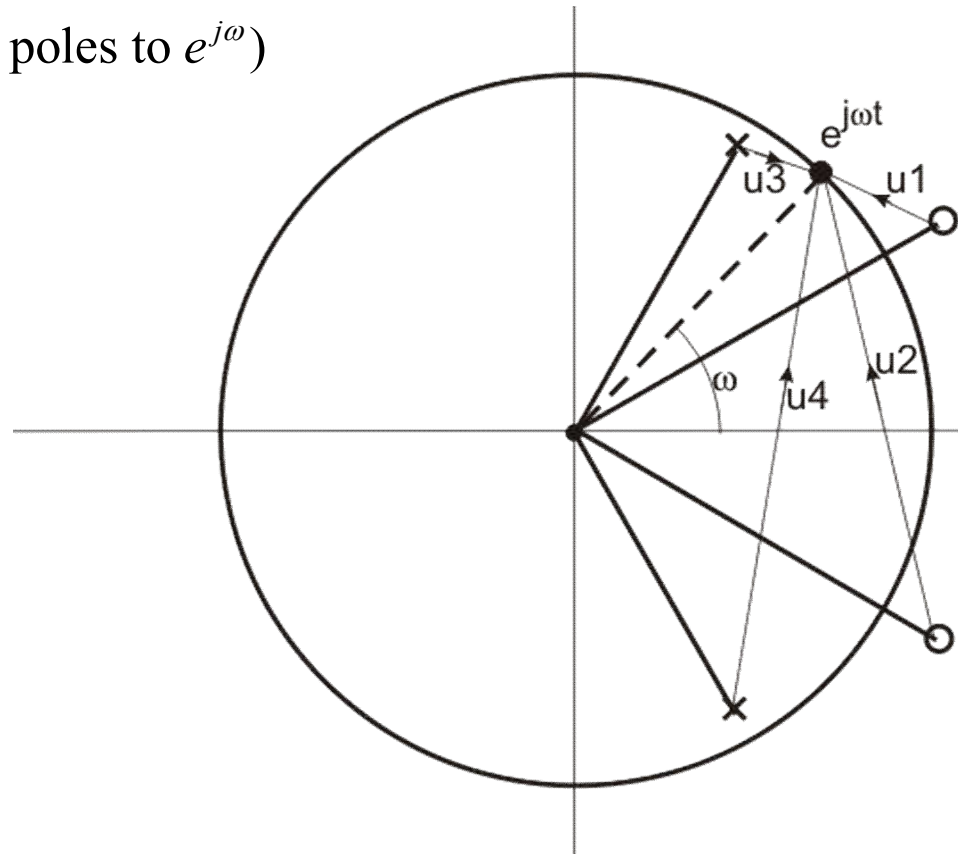
Frequency response by pole and zero distances

- Thus we may evaluate the frequency response at a given frequency in terms of the magnitudes and angles of the phasors \vec{u}_k

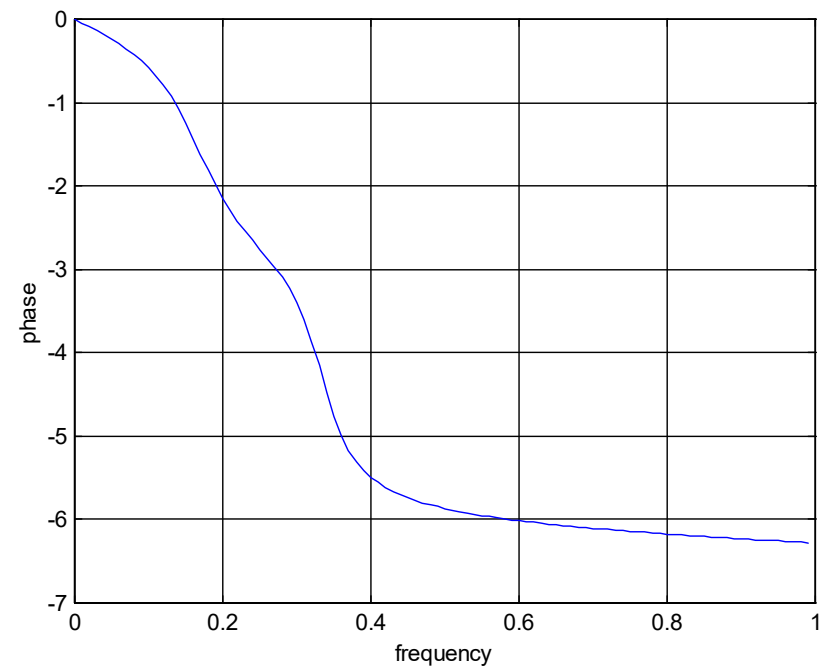
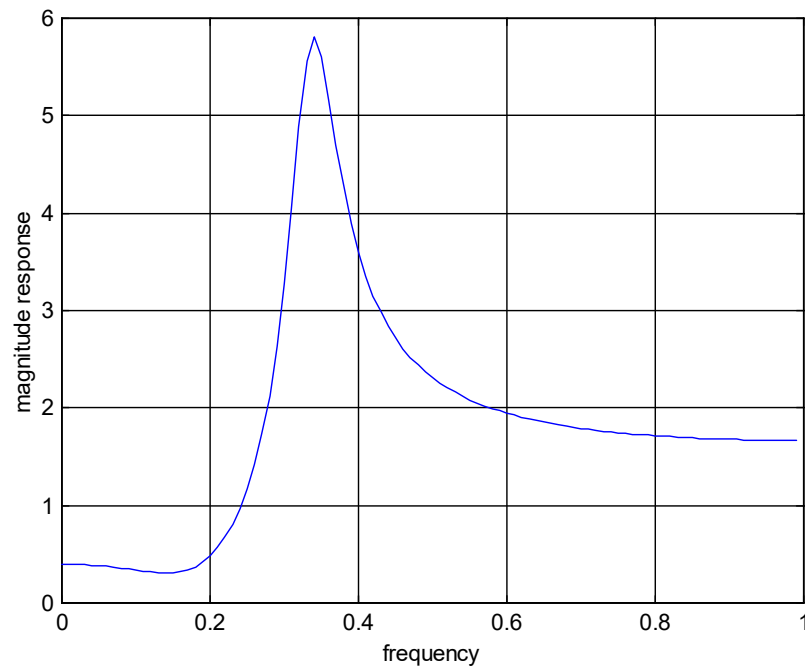
$$|H(e^{j\omega})| = \frac{\text{product of distances to zeros}}{\text{product of distances to poles}}$$

$$\text{Arg}\{H(e^{j\omega})\} = (\text{sum of angles from zeros to } e^{j\omega}) \\ - (\text{sum of angles from poles to } e^{j\omega})$$

This pole – zero diagram shows u_1
 u_2 u_3 and u_4 for our example

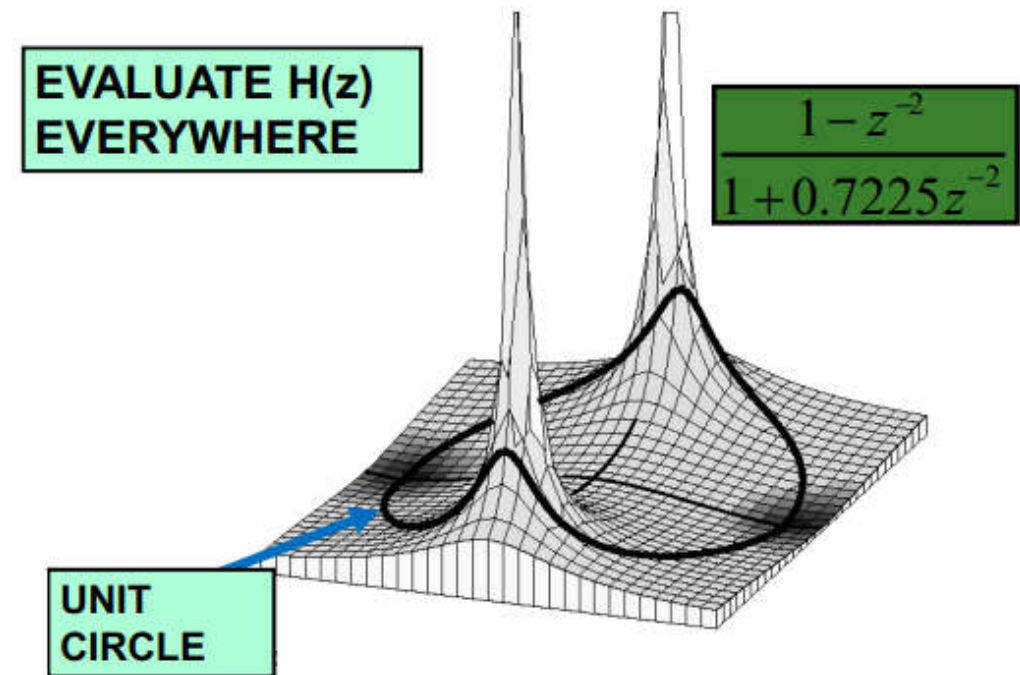


- An approximate plot of the magnitude and phase responses of the transfer function of an LTI digital filter can be developed by examining the pole and zero locations
- Now, the frequency response has the smallest magnitude around $\omega=\zeta$, and the largest magnitude around $\omega=p$.
- Of course, at $\omega=p$, the response is infinitely large, and at $\omega=\zeta$, the response is zero



Frequency response by pole and zero distances

- Therefore:
 - To highly attenuate signal components in a specified frequency range, we need to place zeros very close to or on the unit circle in this range.
 - Likewise, to highly emphasize signal components in a specified frequency range, we need to place poles very close to or on the unit circle in this range.

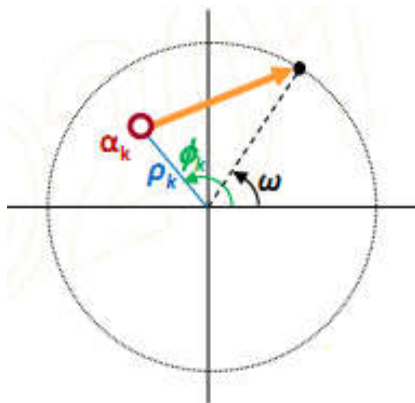


Graphical interpretation

$$\left| H(e^{j\omega}) \right| = \left| \frac{b_0}{a_0} \right| \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M |e^{j\omega} - \zeta_k|}{\prod_{k=1}^N |e^{j\omega} - p_k|}$$

- Complex vector

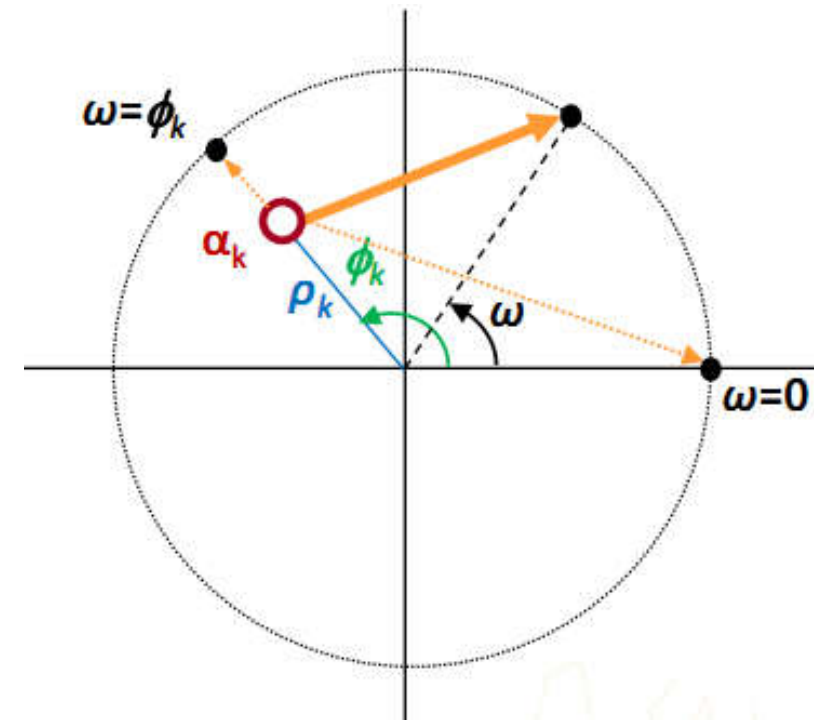
- α_k is in general a complex quantity, let's write that as $\alpha_k = \rho_k e^{j\phi_k}$
- Then we have $e^{j\omega} - \alpha_k = e^{j\omega} - \rho_k e^{j\phi_k}$
- the term $e^{j\omega} - \rho_k e^{j\phi_k}$ represents a vector in the z-plane, that starts at the point $z = \rho_k e^{j\phi_k}$ and ends at the point $z = e^{j\omega}$, which is on the unit circle
- As ω varies from 0 to 2π , the tip of this vector moves counter-clockwise tracing the unit circle.



Zero vectors: α_k is ξ_k , in numerator;

Pole vectors: α_k is p_k , in denominator.

- The magnitude response $|H(\omega)|$, at a given frequency ω , is the product of the magnitude (length of orange vector) of all zeros, divided by the magnitude of all poles, as evaluated at that ω .
 - If α_k is a zero (i.e., a numerator factor), the overall magnitude vector of $H(\omega)$ will be small at frequencies around ϕ_k , and will be exactly zero if α_k is on the unit circle, causing $H(\omega_k) = 0$.
 - Conversely, if α_k is a pole (i.e., a denominator factor), the overall magnitude vector of $H(\omega)$ will be large at frequencies around ϕ_k , and will go to infinity if α_k is on the unit circle.
 - This is why the zeros and the poles that are at or close to the unit circle have a larger impact on the overall frequency response than those that are further away from the unit circle.

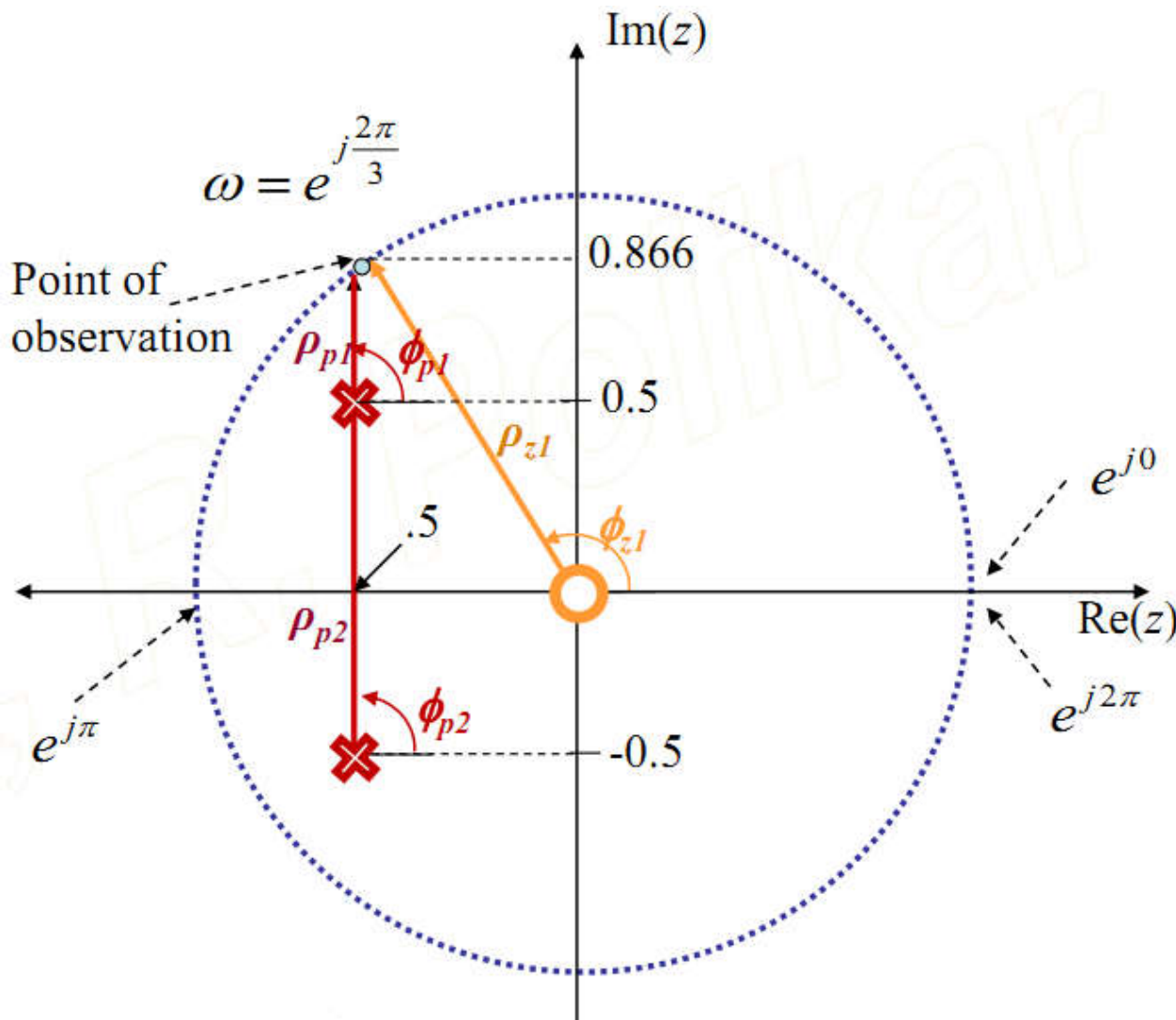


Graphical interpretation – An example

$$H(z) = \frac{z^{-1}}{1 + z^{-1} + 0.5z^{-2}} = \frac{z}{z^2 + z + 0.5}$$

One zero at $z = 0$

One pair of conjugate poles at $z = -0.5000 \pm j0.5000$

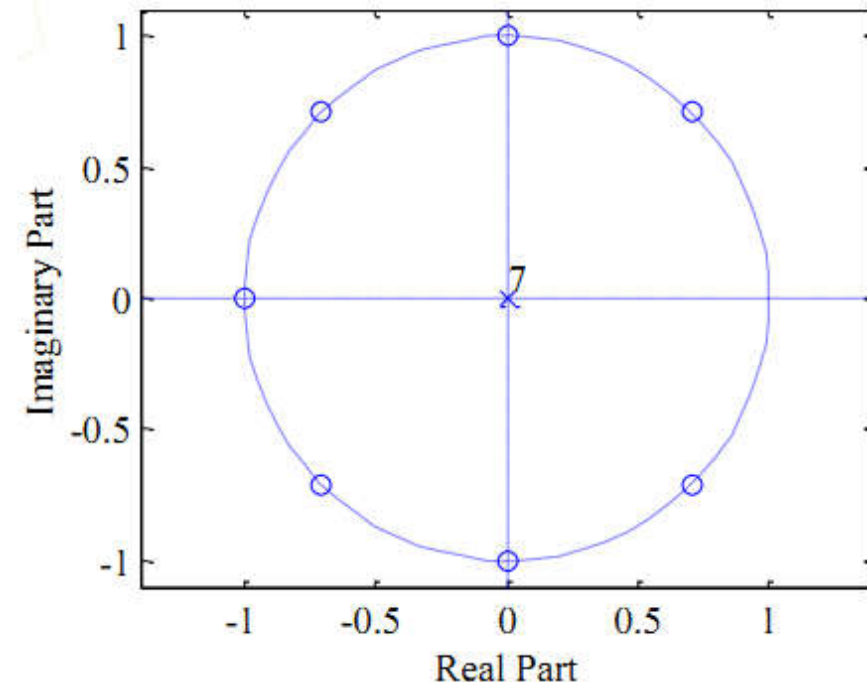


Graphical interpretation – Another example

- Consider the M-point moving-average FIR filter with an impulse response
$$h[n] = \begin{cases} 1/M, & 0 \leq n \leq M-1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

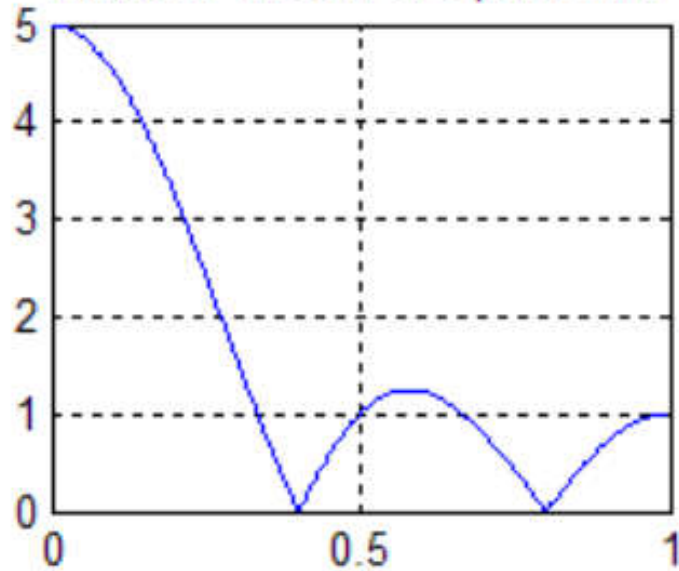
$$H(z) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=0}^{M-1} z^{-n} = \frac{1 - z^{-M}}{M(1 - z^{-1})} = \frac{z^M - 1}{M[z^M(z - 1)]}$$

- The transfer function has M zeros on the unit circle at $z = e^{j2\pi k/M}$, $0 \leq k \leq M-1$
- There are M-1 poles at $z = 0$ and a single pole at $z = 1$
- The pole at $z = 1$ exactly cancels the zero at $z = 1$
- The ROC is the entire z-plane except $z = 0$

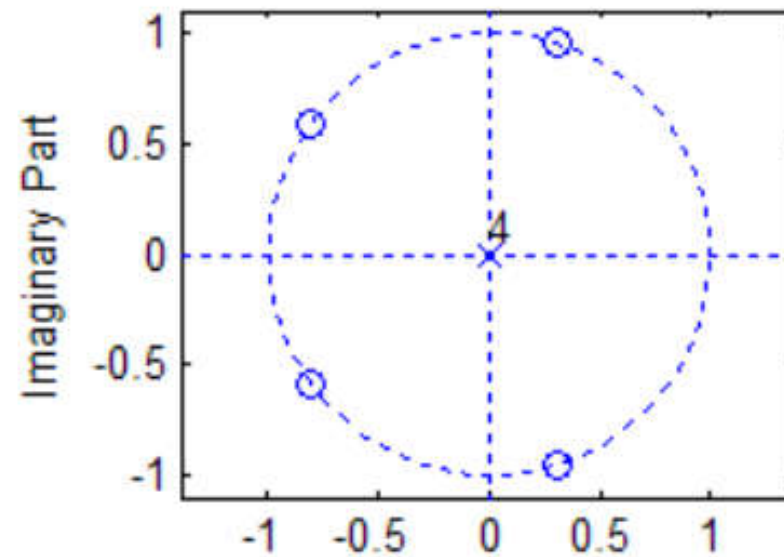


Moving Average Filter

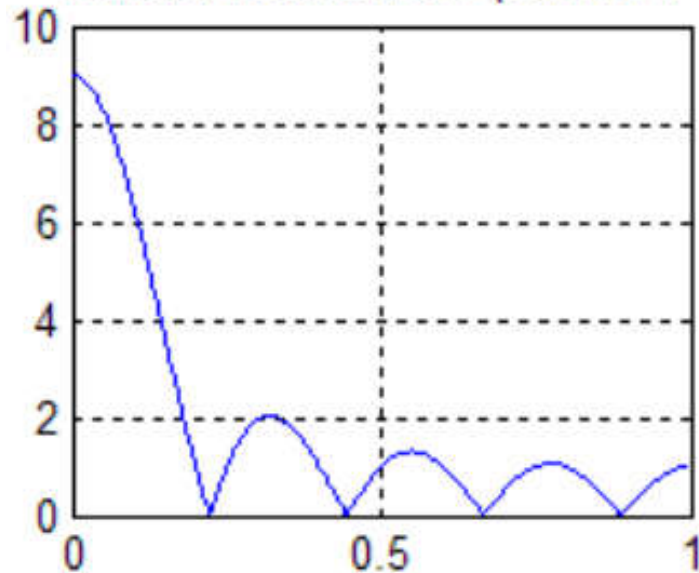
Transfer Function of 5 point MAF



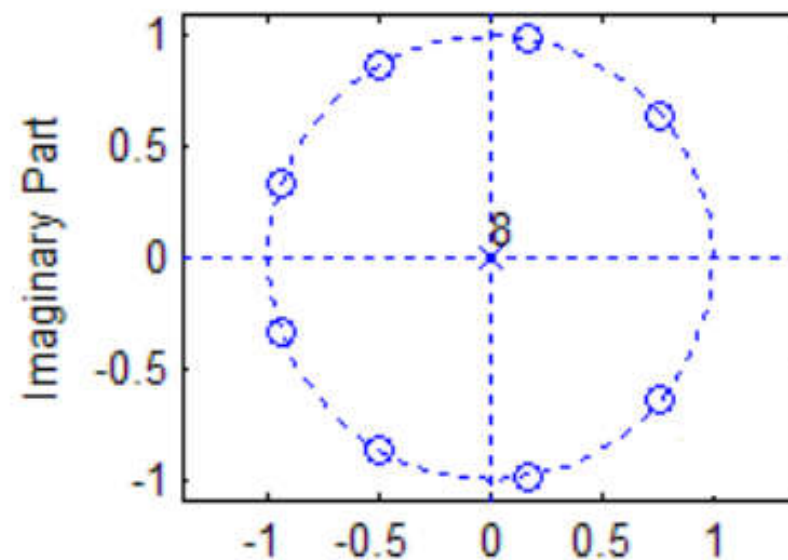
Pole-zero plot of 5 point MAF



Transfer Function of 9 point MAF



Pole-zero plot of 9 point MAF



11_6 Wrap up

- Frequency response

- Magnitude response

- Phase response



Z-transform
(Zero-pole positions)

- Graphic explanation

- Filter design based on zero position arrangement

Chapter 11 Summary

- DTFT \leftrightarrow Z-transform
- Z-transform
 - Definition
 - ROC
 - Properties
 - Inverse
 - Zeroes and poles
- Frequency response (DTFT)