



Universität Hamburg

DER FORSCHUNG | DER LEHRE | DER BILDUNG



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# Digital Media Signal Processing

## 3. The $z$ -Transform

# Outline

1. Introduction of Basic Concepts
2. Discrete-Time Signals and Systems
3. The  $z$ -Transform and Its Applications
  - 3.1 The  $z$ -Transform
  - 3.2 Properties of the  $z$ -Transform
  - 3.3 Rational  $z$ -Transforms
  - 3.4 Representation and Inversion of Rational  $z$ -Transforms
  - 3.5 Analysis of Linear Time Invariant Systems in the  $z$ -Domain
  - 3.6 Summary

- The  $z$ -transform is a specific spectral transform
- It is particularly well suited to analyze discrete-time LTI-systems
- The convolution of two time-domain signals corresponds to a their multiplication in  $z$ -domain
- The  $z$ -transform plays the same role for discrete-time signals as the Laplace transform for continuous-time signals.

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The  $z$ -transform of a discrete-time signal  $x(n)$  is defined as the power series

$$X(z) \equiv Z\{x(n)\} \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n} \quad (1)$$

with  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  a complex-valued variable

- $z$ -transform exists only for those values of  $z$  where the power series converges
- The **region of convergence (ROC)** of  $X(z)$  is the set of all values of  $z$  for which  $X(z)$  attains a finite value
- Thus, whenever we cite a  $z$ -transform, we should also indicate the ROC.

## Examples

$$X(z) \equiv Z\{x(n)\} \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n}$$

1.  $x(n) = \{1, 2, 5, 7, 0, 1\}$   
           $\uparrow$
2.  $x(n) = \{1, 2, 5, 7, 0, 1\}$   
           $\uparrow$
3.  $x(n) = \delta(n)$
4.  $x(n) = \delta(n - k), k > 0$
5.  $x(n) = \delta(n + k), k > 0$

# The $z$ -Transform

## Examples

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5.  $x(n) = \delta(n + k), k > 0$

## Solution

1.  $X(z) = 1 + 2z^{-1} + 5z^{-2} + 7z^{-3} + z^{-5}$ , ROC: entire  $z$ -plane, except  $z = 0$
2.  $X(z) = 1z^2 + 2z^1 + 5 + 7z^{-1} + z^{-3}$ , ROC: entire  $z$ -plane, except  $z = 0, z = \infty$
3.  $\delta(n) \xrightarrow{z} 1$ , ROC: entire  $z$ -plane
4.  $\delta(n - k) \xrightarrow{z} z^{-k}$ , ROC: entire  $z$ -plane, except  $z = 0$
5.  $\delta(n + k) \xrightarrow{z} z^k$ , ROC: entire  $z$ -plane, except  $z = \infty$

# The $z$ -Transform

## The Region of Convergence (ROC)

- The ROC of a finite-duration signal is the entire  $z$ -plane, except possibly  $z = 0$  and  $z = \infty$ 
  - $z^k$  ( $k > 0$ ) becomes unbounded for  $z = \infty$
  - $z^{-k} = \frac{1}{z^k}$  ( $k > 0$ ) becomes unbounded for  $z = 0$
- Mathematically speaking, the  $z$ -transform is simply an alternative representation of a signal.
  - The coefficient of  $z^{-n}$  is the signal value at time  $n$

$$x(n) = \{ \dots, x(0), x(1), x(2), x(3), \dots \}$$

$$\updownarrow z$$

$$X(z) = \dots + x(0) + x(1)z^{-1} + x(2)z^{-2} + x(3)z^{-3} + \dots$$



## Example 3.1.2 I

- Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n)$$

## Example 3.1.2 II

- Solution:

$$x(n) = \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{2}, \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n, \dots \right\}$$

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

- Note that in general the *geometric series* converges as

$$1 + A + A^2 + A^3 + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - A}, \quad \text{if } |A| < 1$$

- Consequently for  $|\frac{1}{2}z^{-1}| < 1$ , i.e.  $|z| > \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $X(z)$  converges as

$$x(n) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n) \quad \xrightarrow{z} \quad X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}}, \quad \text{ROC: } |z| > \frac{1}{2}$$

# The $z$ -Transform

$z$  in polar form

- Let us represent the complex variable  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  in polar form

$$z = re^{j\theta}$$

with  $r = |z|$  and  $\theta = \angle z$  Then, the  $z$ -transform results in

$$X(z) \Big|_{z=re^{j\theta}} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)r^{-n}e^{-j\theta n}$$

- To determine the ROC, it must hold that  $|X(z)| < \infty$ , with

$$|X(z)| = \left| \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)r^{-n}e^{-j\theta n} \right| \leq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)r^{-n}e^{-j\theta n}| = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)r^{-n}|$$

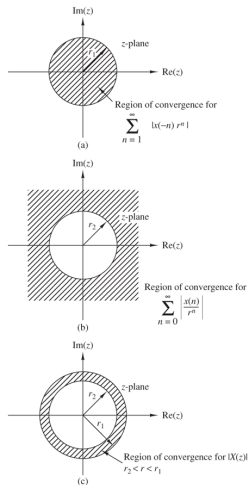
→ ROC only depends on  $r = |z|$

# The $z$ -Transform

## Region of Convergence (ROC) with $z$ in polar form

$$\begin{aligned}
 |X(z)| &\leq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)r^{-n}| \\
 &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x(-n)r^n| \\
 &\quad + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{x(n)}{r^n} \right| \\
 &\stackrel{!}{\leq} \infty
 \end{aligned}$$

- from the first summand it follows that  $r < r_1$
  - from the second summand it follows that  $r > r_2$
- ROC:  $r_2 < r < r_1$



**Figure 3.1.1** Region of convergence for  $X(z)$  and its corresponding causal and anticausal components.

- Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = \alpha^n u(n) = \begin{cases} \alpha^n, & n \geq 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

## Example 3.1.3

- Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = \alpha^n u(n) = \begin{cases} \alpha^n, & n \geq 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

- From the  $z$ -transform definition we get

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha^n z^{-n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\alpha z^{-1})^n$$

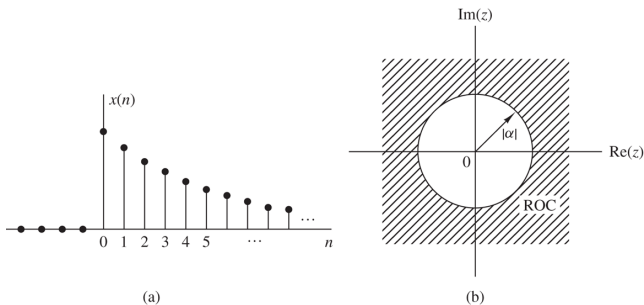
- if  $|\alpha z^{-1}| < 1$  (i.e.  $|z| > |\alpha|$ ) this power series converges to

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

# Example 3.1.3

## Visualization

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



**Figure 3.1.2** The exponential signal  $x(n) = \alpha^n u(n)$  (a), and the ROC of its  $z$ -transform (b).

## Example 3.1.4

- Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = -\alpha^n u(-n - 1)$$

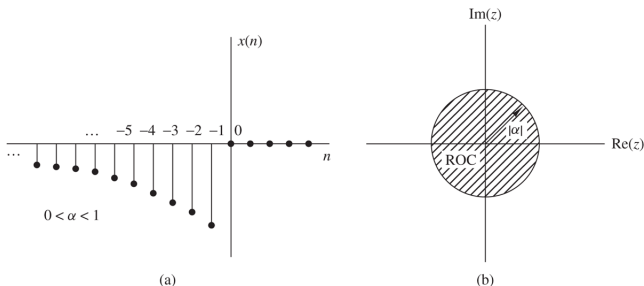


# Example 3.1.4

- Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = -\alpha^n u(-n-1) = \begin{cases} 0, & n \geq 0 \\ -\alpha^n, & n \leq -1 \end{cases}$$

$$x(n) = -\alpha^n u(-n-1) \xrightarrow{z} X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}, \quad \text{ROC: } |z| < |\alpha|$$



**Figure 3.1.3** Anticausal signal  $x(n) = -\alpha^n u(-n-1)$  (a), and the ROC of its  $z$ -transform (b).

# Discussion of Examples 3.1.3 and 3.1.4

- The causal signal  $\alpha^n u(n)$  and the anticausal signal  $x(n) = -\alpha^n u(-n - 1)$  have the exact same  $z$ -transform!
- ➔ The closed-form expression of the  $z$ -transform does not uniquely specify the time-domain signal
- ➔ The ambiguity can be resolved if the ROC is specified!

## Example 3.1.5

- Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = \alpha^n u(n) + b^n u(-n - 1)$$

# Example 3.1.5

- Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = \alpha^n u(n) + b^n u(-n-1)$$

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

with ROC  $|\alpha| < |z| < |b|$

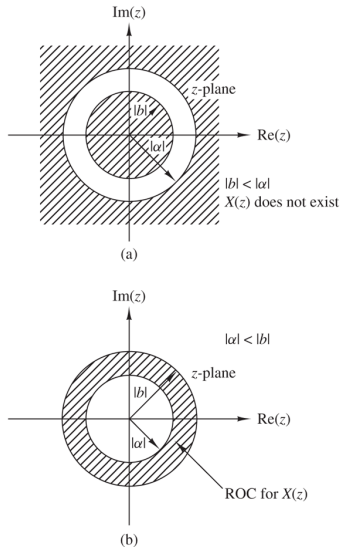


Figure 3.1.4 ROC for  $z$ -transform in Example 3.1.5.

# Conclusions from the Examples

- A discrete time-domain signal is uniquely determined by its  $z$ -transform  $X(z)$  and the region of convergence (ROC) of  $X(z)$
- The ROC of a causal signal is the exterior of a circle of some radius  $r_2$ , while
- the ROC of an anticausal signal is the interior of a circle of some radius  $r_1$
- If there exists a ROC for an infinite-duration two-sided signal, it is a ring in the  $z$ -plane

Signal	ROC
<b>Finite-Duration Signals</b>	
<p>Causal</p>	<p>Entire <math>z</math>-plane except <math>z = 0</math></p>
<p>Anticausal</p>	<p>Entire <math>z</math>-plane except <math>z = \infty</math></p>
<p>Two-sided</p>	<p>Entire <math>z</math>-plane except <math>z = 0</math> and <math>z = \infty</math></p>
<b>Infinite-Duration Signals</b>	
<p>Causal</p>	<p><math> z  &gt; r_2</math></p>
<p>Anticausal</p>	<p><math> z  &lt; r_1</math></p>
<p>Two-sided</p>	<p><math>r_2 &lt;  z  &lt; r_1</math></p>

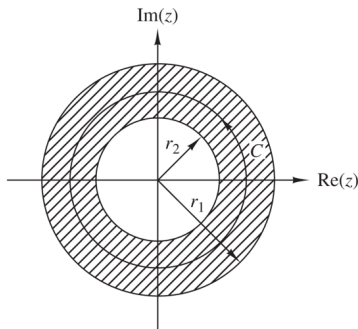
# The Inverse $z$ -Transform

## Cauchy Integral Theorem

- The inverse  $z$ -Transform is based on the *Cauchy Integral Theorem*

$$\frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C z^{n-1-k} dz = \begin{cases} 1, & k = n \\ 0, & k \neq n \end{cases}$$

The  $\oint_C$  denotes an integration over a close contour within the ROC of  $X(z)$



**Figure 3.1.5** Contour  $C$  for integral in (3.1.13).

## Derivation

see Section 3.1.2



# The $z$ -Transform and its inverse

## The $z$ -Transform

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n}$$

## The inverse $z$ -Transform

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

- Typically, we deal with signals which have a rational  $z$ -transforms (i.e.  $z$ -transforms that are a ratio of two polynomials)
- Simpler method for inversion can be used that employs a table lookup!

# Some Common $z$ -Transform Pairs

Table 3.2

	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 $

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# Properties of the $z$ -Transform

- The properties of the  $z$ -Transform can all be derived using the definition of the  $z$ -transform
- See Section 3.2 in Proakis Manolakis book

# Properties of the $z$ -Transform

## Time Shifting

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

### ■ Derivation

$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \sum_{n'=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n') z^{-n'} \\ &\downarrow n' = n - k \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n - k) z^{-n} z^k \end{aligned}$$

$$X(z) z^{-k} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n - k) z^{-n}$$

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

# Properties of the $z$ -Transform

## Time Reversal

$$x(n) \xrightarrow{z} X(z),$$

$$\text{ROC: } r_1 < |z| < r_2$$

$$x(-n) \xrightarrow{z} X(z^{-1}),$$

$$\text{ROC: } \frac{1}{r_1} < |z| < \frac{1}{r_2}$$

### ■ Derivation

$$\begin{aligned} Z\{x(-n)\} &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(-n)z^{-n} \\ &\quad \downarrow l = -n \\ &= \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} x(l)(z^{-1})^{-l} \\ &= X(z^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

# Properties of the $z$ -Transform

## Convolution of Two Sequences

$$x_1(n) * x_2(n) \xrightarrow{z} X_1(z)X_2(z)$$

- Follows from the definition of convolution
- One of the most powerful properties!

# Properties of the $z$ -Transform

## Convolution of Two Sequences

$$x_1(n) * x_2(n) \xrightarrow{z} X_1(z)X_2(z)$$

- Follows from the definition of convolution
- One of the most powerful properties!

### Computation of the convolution $x(n) = x_1(n) * x_2(n)$

1. Compute  $z$ -transform of the signals to be convolved

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

$$X_2(z) = Z\{x_2(n)\} \quad (\text{time domain} \longrightarrow z\text{-domain})$$

2. Multiply the two  $z$ -transforms

$$X(z) = X_1(z)X_2(z) \quad (z\text{-domain})$$

3. Find the inverse  $z$ -transform of  $X(z)$

$$x(n) = Z^{-1}\{X(z)\} \quad (z\text{-domain} \longrightarrow \text{time domain})$$



# Properties of the $z$ -Transform

Property	Time Domain	$z$ -Domain	ROC
Notation	$x(n)$ $x_1(n)$ $x_2(n)$	$X(z)$ $X_1(z)$ $X_2(z)$	ROC: $r_2 <  z  < r_1$ ROC <sub>1</sub> ROC <sub>2</sub>
Linearity	$a_1x_1(n) + a_2x_2(n)$	$a_1X_1(z) + a_2X_2(z)$	At least the intersection of ROC <sub>1</sub> and ROC <sub>2</sub>
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	$a^n x(n)$	$X(az)$	$ 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	$\text{Im}\{x(n)\}$	$\frac{1}{2j}[X(z) - X^*(z^*)]$	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 <sub>1</sub> and ROC <sub>2</sub>
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 $r_{1l}r_{2l} <  z  < r_{1u}r_{2u}$
Parseval's relation		$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n)x_2^*(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X_1(v)X_2^*(1/v^*)v^{-1}dv$	

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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$
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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 $

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

- As we saw from previous table, typical  $z$ -transforms are *rational functions*, i.e. ratios of polynomials in  $z^{-1}$
- We will now show that rational  $z$ -transforms are also encountered when characterizing discrete-time LTI-systems described by difference equations

# Rational $z$ -Transforms I

## Poles and Zeros

- The **zeros** of a  $z$ -transform  $X(z)$  are the values of  $z$  for which  $X(z) = 0$
- The **poles** of a  $z$ -transform  $X(z)$  are the values of  $z$  for which  $X(z) = \infty$
- If  $X(z)$  is a rational function then

$$X(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + b_2 z^{-2} + \dots + b_M z^{-M}}{a_0 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2} + \dots + a_N z^{-N}} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_K z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_K z^{-k}}$$

- If  $a_0 \neq 0$  and  $b_0 \neq 0$  we can avoid negative powers of  $z$  by factorizing as

$$X(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)} = \frac{b_0 z^{-M} z^M + (b_1/b_0) z^{M-1} + \dots + b_M/b_0}{a_0 z^{-N} z^N + (a_1/a_0) z^{N-1} + \dots + a_N/a_0}$$

# Rational $z$ -Transforms II

## Poles and Zeros

- Since  $B(z)$  and  $A(z)$  are polynomials, they can be expressed in factored form as

$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \frac{b_0}{a_0} z^{-M+N} \frac{(z - z_1)(z - z_2) \dots (z - z_M)}{(z - p_1)(z - p_2) \dots (z - p_N)} \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{b_0}{a_0}}_G z^{N-M} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - z_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - p_k)} \end{aligned}$$

$X(z)$  has

- $M$  finite zeros  $z_k$  (the roots of the numerator polynomial)
- $N$  finite poles  $p_k$  (the roots of the denominator polynomial)
- $|N - M|$  zeros (if  $N > M$ ) or poles (if  $N < M$ ) at the origin  $z = 0$
- A zero (pole) exists at  $z = \infty$  if  $X(\infty) = 0$  ( $X(\infty) = \infty$ )
- $X(z)$  has exactly as many poles as zeros!

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Pole-zero plot

- $X(z)$  can be represented graphically by a *pole-zero plot* in the complex plane
- poles are represented by crosses  $\times$
- zeros are represented by circles  $\circ$
- Obviously, by definition, the ROC should not contain any poles!

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Pole-zero plot

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  - poles are represented by crosses  $\times$
  - zeros are represented by circles  $\circ$
  - Obviously, by definition, the ROC should not contain any poles!
- Exercise 3.3.1: Determine pole-zero plot for  $x(n) = a^n u(n)$

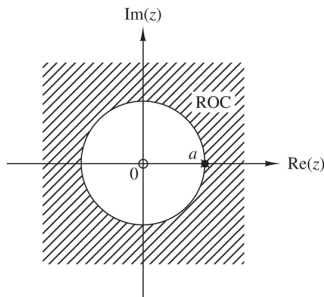


# Rational $z$ -Transforms

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- $X(z)$  can be represented graphically by a *pole-zero plot* in the complex plane
- poles are represented by crosses  $\times$
- zeros are represented by circles  $\circ$
- Obviously, by definition, the ROC should not contain any poles!

→ Exercise 3.3.1: Determine pole-zero plot for  $x(n) = a^n u(n)$



**Figure 3.3.1** Pole-zero plot for the causal exponential signal  $x(n) = a^n u(n)$ .

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Example 3.3.2

- Determine the pole-zero plot for the signal

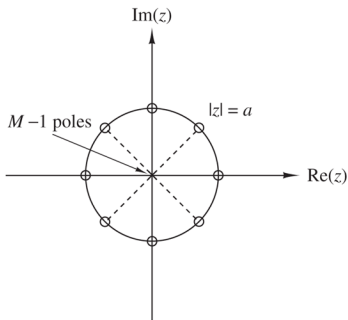
$$x(n) = \begin{cases} a^n, & 0 \leq n \leq M-1 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Example 3.3.2

- Determine the pole-zero plot for the signal

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

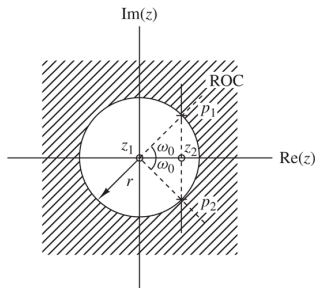


**Figure 3.3.2** Pole-zero pattern for the finite-duration signal  $x(n) = a^n$ ,  $0 \leq n \leq M-1$  ( $a > 0$ ), for  $M = 8$ .

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Example 3.3.3

- Determine the  $z$ -transform and the signal that corresponds to the pole-zero plot of Figure 3.3.3



**Figure 3.3.3** Pole-zero pattern for Example 3.3.3.

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Preliminary conclusions from the examples

- The product  $(z - p_1)(z - p_2)$  results in a polynomial with real-valued coefficients *if  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  are complex conjugates*
- In general, if a polynomial has real-valued coefficients, its roots are either real-valued or occur in complex-conjugate pairs

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Visualization of $|X(z)|$

- Instead of the pole-zero plot, we can also represent the magnitude  $|X(z)|$  as a two-dimensional surface in the complex plane, e.g.

$$X(z) = \frac{z^{-1} - z^{-2}}{1 + 1.2732z^{-1} + 0.81z^{-2}} \quad (3.3.3)$$

# Rational $z$ -Transforms

## Visualization of $|X(z)|$

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$$X(z) = \frac{z^{-1} - z^{-2}}{1 + 1.2732z^{-1} + 0.81z^{-2}} \quad (3.3.3)$$

→ one zero at  $z_1 = 1$ , two poles at  $p_1, p_2 = 0.9e^{\pm j\pi/4}$

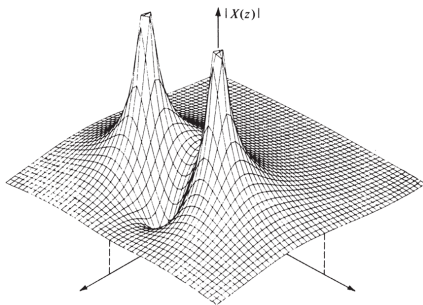


Figure 3.3.4 Graph of  $|X(z)|$  for the  $z$ -transform in (3.3.3).

# Pole Location and Time-Domain Behavior I

## Single real-valued pole

- Here, we investigate the relation pole-pairs and the corresponding time-domain signal
- Here, we exclusively deal with real-valued causal signals
- We will see that the characteristic behavior of causal signals depends on whether the poles are inside ( $|z| < 1$ ) or outside ( $|z| > 1$ ), or *on* ( $|z| = 1$ ) the **unit circle**
- If a real-valued signal has a  $z$ -transform with one pole, this pole has to be real-valued. The only such signal is the real-valued exponential!

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

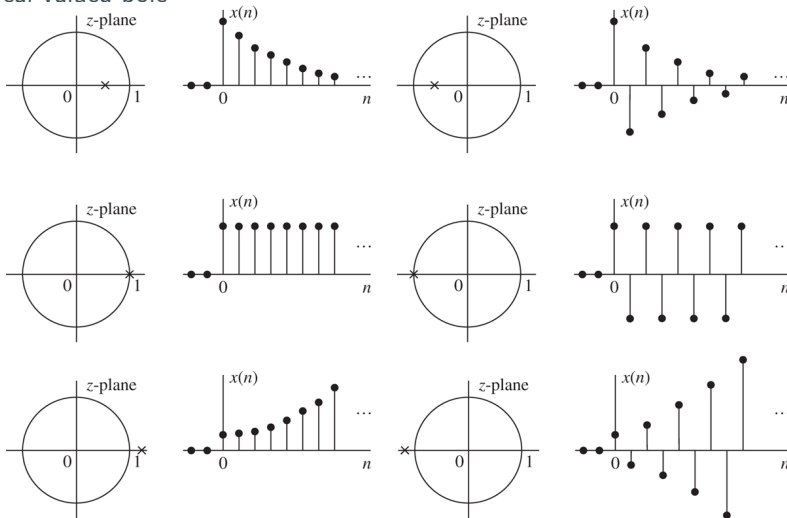
having one zero at  $z_1 = 0$  and one pole at  $p_1 = a$  on the real axis

- see illustration on next page



# Pole Location and Time-Domain Behavior II

## Single real-valued pole



**Figure 3.3.5** Time-domain behavior of a single-real-pole causal signal as a function of the location of the pole with respect to the unit circle.

# Pole Location and Time-Domain Behavior III

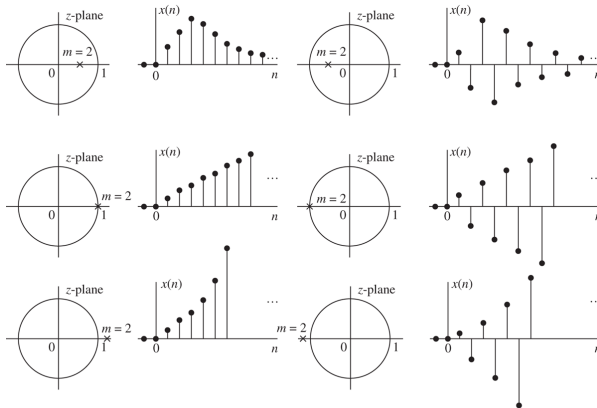
## Single real-valued pole

- Signal is decaying if pole is inside the unit circle
- Signal is fixed if the pole is on the unit circle
- Signal is growing if the pole is outside the unit circle
- Negative poles results in a signal that alternates in sign.
- ➔ Causal signals with poles outside the unit circle become unbounded, cause overflow in digital systems and should generally be avoided

# Pole Location and Time-Domain Behavior

## Double real-valued pole

- A causal real-valued signal with a double real-valued pole has the form (see Tables):  $x(n) = na^n u(n)$   $\circ \xrightarrow{z} \bullet \frac{az^{-1}}{(1-az^{-1})^2}$
- ➔ A double real pole on the unit circle results in an unbounded signal



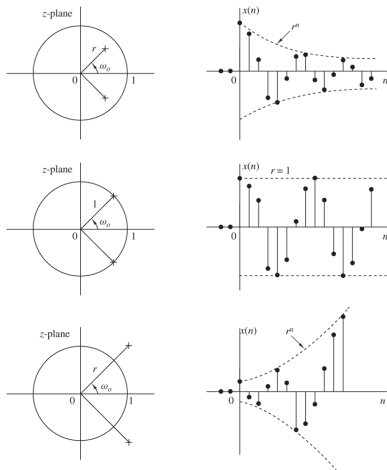
**Figure 3.3.6** Time-domain behavior of causal signals corresponding to a double ( $m = 2$ ) real pole, as a function of the pole location.

# Pole Location and Time-Domain Behavior

## Complex conjugate poles

- Complex conjugate poles  $\rightarrow$  exponentially weighted sinusoidal signal

$$r^n \cos(\omega_0 n) u(n) \quad \circ \bullet \quad \frac{1 - rz^{-1} \cos(\omega_0)}{1 - 2rz^{-1} \cos(\omega_0) + z^{-2}}$$

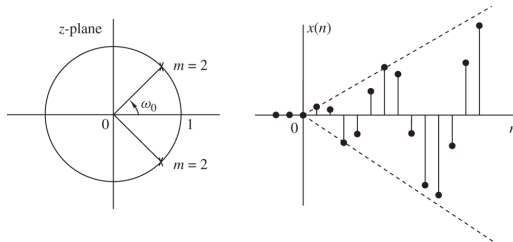


**Figure 3.3.7** A pair of complex-conjugate poles corresponds to causal signals with oscillatory behavior.

# Pole Location and Time-Domain Behavior

## Double conjugate poles

- Careful with double poles on the unit circle



**Figure 3.3.8** Causal signal corresponding to a double pair of complex-conjugate poles on the unit circle.

# Pole Location and Time-Domain Behavior

## Summary

- Causal real-valued signals with simple real-valued poles or simple complex-conjugate pairs of poles which are inside or on the unit circle are always bounded in amplitude
- The closer poles are to the origin, the more rapidly the signal decays
- Time-domain behavior of a signal depends strongly on the *location of the poles relative to the unit circle*
- Zeros affect behavior of a signal not as strongly as poles
  - e.g. for a sinusoidal signal, the presence and location of zeros affects only its phase
- The results found for causal signals also applies to the impulse responses of causal LTI systems
  - If a system has a pole outside the unit circle, the system is unstable

# System Function of an LTI-System

- The output of an LTI-system to an input sequence  $x(n)$  is given by

$$y(n) = x(n) * h(n) \quad \circ \xrightarrow{z} \bullet \quad Y(z) = H(z)X(z)$$

- Impulse response  $h(n)$  corresponds to the time-domain characterization of the system
- System function  $H(z) = Z\{h(n)\}$  corresponds to the  $z$ -domain characterization of the system
- Show that: If the system is described by a linear constant-coefficient difference equation

$$y(n) = - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k)$$

the system function is a *rational function*

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the system function is a *rational function*

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}}$$



# System Function of an LTI-System

## All-zero systems

- $a_k = 0$  for  $1 \leq k \leq N$

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(z) &= \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}} \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k} = \frac{1}{z^M} \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{M-k} \\
 y(n) &= - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k)
 \end{aligned}$$

- $H(z)$  contains  $M$  zeros whose values are determined by the system parameters  $b_k$  (and  $M$ th order pole at  $z = 0$ )
- called **all-zero** system or moving average (**MA**) system
- has finite-duration impulse response (**FIR**)

# System Function of an LTI-System

## All-pole systems

- $b_k = 0$  for  $1 \leq k \leq M$

$$H(z) = \frac{b_0}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}} = \frac{b_0 z^N}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k}}, \quad a_0 \equiv 1$$

$$y(n) = - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) + b_0 x(n)$$

- $H(z)$  contains  $N$  poles whose values are determined by the system parameters  $a_k$  (and  $N$ th order zero at  $z = 0$ )
- called **all-pole** system or autoregressive (**AR**) system
- has infinite-duration impulse response (**IIR**)

# System Function of an LTI-System

## Pole-zero systems

- The general system

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}}$$

$$y(n) = - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k)$$

- $H(z)$  contains  $N$  poles and  $M$  zeros  $b_k$
- Poles and/or zeros at  $z = 0$  and  $z = \infty$  are implied but not counted explicitly
- called **pole-zero** system or autoregressive moving average (**ARMA**) system
- has infinite-duration impulse response (**IIR**)

# System Function of an LTI-System

## Example 3.3.4

- Determine system function and the unit sample response of the system described by the difference equation

$$y(n) = \frac{1}{2}y(n-1) + 2x(n)$$

# System Function of an LTI-System

## Example 3.3.4

- Determine system function and the unit sample response of the system described by the difference equation

$$y(n) = \frac{1}{2}y(n-1) + 2x(n)$$

- Solution:

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

- pole at  $z = 1/2$  and a zero at the origin.
- Using the table we obtain the inverse and thus the unit sample response

$$h(n) = 2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^n u(n)$$

# Outline

1. Introduction of Basic Concepts
2. Discrete-Time Signals and Systems
- 3. The  $z$ -Transform and Its Applications**
  - 3.1 The  $z$ -Transform
  - 3.2 Properties of the  $z$ -Transform
  - 3.3 Rational  $z$ -Transforms
  - 3.4 Representation and Inversion of Rational  $z$ -Transforms**
  - 3.5 Analysis of Linear Time Invariant Systems in the  $z$ -Domain
  - 3.6 Summary

# Representations of Rational $z$ -Transforms

- Recall that if  $X(z)$  is a rational function then

$$X(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k}}$$

- The polynomials  $B(z)$  and  $A(z)$  can also be represented by their roots

$$X(z) = \underbrace{G}_{\frac{b_0}{a_0}} z^{N-M} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - z_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - p_k)}$$

→ realization by a serial concatenation of sub-filters possible

- For distinct poles  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N$  a partial fraction expansion results in

$$\frac{X(z)}{z} = \frac{A_1}{z - p_1} + \frac{A_2}{z - p_2} + \dots + \frac{A_N}{z - p_N}, \quad A_k = \left. \frac{(z - p_k)X(z)}{z} \right|_{z=p_k}$$

→ realization by a parallel sub-filters (the summands) possible

→ the **inverse  $z$ -transform** can be found by using a partial fraction expansion and looking up each summand in an inversion table

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- A necessary and sufficient condition for an LTI system to be BIBO stable is

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h(n)| < \infty$$

- Since

$$H(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} h(n)z^{-n}$$

it follows that

$$|H(z)| \leq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h(n)z^{-n}| = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h(n)||z^{-n}| \stackrel{|z|=1}{=} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h(n)|$$

- in the ROC, per definition  $|H(z)| < \infty$
- if unit circle  $|z| = 1$  is in the ROC, then  $|H(z)| \leq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h(n)| < \infty$   
 → the system is BIBO stable

# Causality and Stability

## Causality

An LTI system is causal, iff the ROC of the system is the exterior of a circle of radius  $r < \infty$ , including  $z = \infty$

## Stability

An LTI system is BIBO stable, iff the ROC of the system includes the unit circle

Since per definition, the ROC cannot contain any poles:

## Stability for Causal Systems

A *causal* LTI system is BIBO stable, iff all poles of  $H(z)$  are inside the unit circle.

## Example 5.2

- An LTI system is given by

$$\begin{aligned} H(z) &= \frac{3 - 4z^{-1}}{1 - 3.5z^{-1} + 1.5z^{-2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}} + \frac{2}{1 - 3z^{-1}} \end{aligned}$$

- Specify the ROC, determine  $h(n)$ , and comment on the causality/stability for the following conditions
  - a) The system is stable
  - b) The system is causal
  - c) The system is anticausal

# Stability of Second-Order Systems I

- Consider a causal two-pole system described by the 2nd order difference equation

$$y(n) = -a_1 y(n-1) - a_2 y(n-2) + b_0 x(n)$$

- The system function is then

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{b_0}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2}} = \frac{b_0 z^2}{z^2 + a_1 z + a_2}$$

- poles are given by  $pq$ -formula

$$p_{1,2} = -\frac{a_1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{a_1}{2}\right)^2 - a_2}$$

- To be BIBO-stable it must hold that  $p_{1,2} < 1$  (poles inside unit circle)
  - $a_1 = -(p_1 + p_2)$   
 $a_2 = p_1 p_2$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow |a_2| &= |p_1 p_2| < 1 \\ |a_1| &< 1 + a_2 \end{aligned}$$

- This defines a region in the coefficient plane ( $a_1, a_2$ ) which is in the form of a triangle, the **stability triangle**

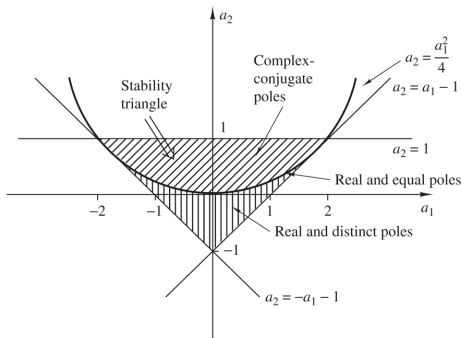


Figure 3.5.1 Region of stability (stability triangle) in the ( $a_1, a_2$ ) coefficient plane for a second-order system.

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- Continuous-time equivalent for  $z$ -transform is the Laplace transform
- The convolution of two time-domain signals results in the multiplication of their  $z$ -transforms
- For LTI-systems the input output relation is given by  $Y(z) = H(z)X(z)$ , with the system function  $H(z) = Z\{h(n)\}$
- Many signals of practical interest have rational  $z$ -transforms
- LTI-systems described by constant-coefficient linear difference equations also possess rational system functions  $H(z)$
- Inverses of rational  $z$ -transforms can be found by table look-ups (inverse depends on ROC!)
- Stability and causality of a system depends on position of poles!