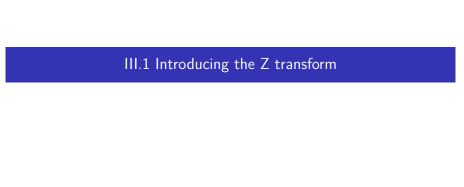




Chapter III: The Z Transform



Preliminaries: complex numbers

- real and imaginary part
- modulus and phase
- graphical interpretation
- ► Euler formula
- modulus and phase of e^{jx}

Definition of Z transform

▶ The Z Transform of a signal x[n], called X(z), is defined as:

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

- ▶ It is defined only for the values of z where the sum is finite (called region of convergence)
- Notation:

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

- ▶ Similar to the Laplace transform for analog signals
- ► The Z transform associates **a polynomial** to a signal (think Decision and Estimation class)
- ► Why?
 - ► Convolution of two signals = multiplication of polynomials
 - ▶ Short descriptions of complicated signals (i.e. exponential signals)

Examples

```
x[n]=1,2,5,7,0, (with time origin in 1 or in 5) \delta[n], \delta[n-k], \delta[n+k] \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n x[n]=a^nu[n] x[n]=-a^nu[-n-1]
```

Region of convergence

- \blacktriangleright For finite-support signals, the CR is the whole Z plane, possibly except 0 or ∞
- ▶ For causal signals, the CR is the outside of a circle:

$$|z| > r_1$$

► For anti-causal signals, the CR is the inside of a circle:

$$|z| < r_2$$

► For bilateral signals, both the causal and the anti-causal terms of the sum must converges —> the CR is the area between two circles:

$$r_1 < |z| < r_2$$

- \blacktriangleright For finite-support signals, the two "circles" are 0 and ∞
- ▶ Two different signals can have the same expression of X(z), but with different RC!
 - RC is an essential part in specifying a Z transform
 - should never be omitted

The Inverse Z Transform

- From a purely mathematical point of view, X(z) is a complex function
- Proper definition of inverse transform is based on the theory of complex functions

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

▶ Multiply with z^{n-1} and integrate along a contour C inside the Convergence Region:

$$\oint_C X(z)z^{n-1}dz = \oint_C \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]z^{n-k-1}dz = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] \oint_C z^{n-k-1}dz$$

The Inverse Z Transform

▶ The Cauchy integral theorem says that:

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

And therefore:

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

We will not use this relation in practice, but instead will rely on partial fraction decomposition

1. Linearity

If $x_1[n] \overset{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_1(z)$ with CR1, and $x_2[n] \overset{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_2(z)$ with CR2, then:

$$ax_1[n] + bx_2[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} aX_1(z) + bX_2(z)$$

and CR is at least the intersection of CR1 and CR2.

Proof: use definition

2. Shifting in time

If $x[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$ with CR, then:

$$x[n-k] \stackrel{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} z^{-k}X(z)$$

with same RC, possibly except 0 and ∞ .

Proof: by definition

- ▶ valid for all k, also for k < 0
- delay of 1 sample = z^{-1}

3. Modulation in time

If $x[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$ with CR, then:

$$e^{j\omega_0 n}x[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X\left(e^{-j\omega_0}z\right)$$

with same CR Proof: by definition

4. Reflected signal

If $x[n] \overset{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$ with CR $r_1 < |z| < r_2$, then:

$$x[-n] \stackrel{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z^{-1})$$

with CR $\frac{1}{r_2} < |z| \frac{1}{r_1}$ Proof: by definition

5. Derivative of Z transform

If $x[n] \stackrel{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$ with CR, then:

$$nx[n] \stackrel{Z}{\longleftrightarrow} -z \frac{dX(z)}{dz}$$

with same CR

Proof: by derivating the difference

6. Transform of difference

If $x[n] \stackrel{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$ with CR, then:

$$x[n] - x[n-1] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} (1-z^{-1})X(z)$$

with same CR except z = 0.

Proof: using linearity and time-shift property

7. Accumulation in time

If $x[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$ with CR, then:

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{n} x[k] \stackrel{Z}{\longleftrightarrow} \frac{X(z)}{(1-z^{-1})}$$

with same CR except z = 1.

Proof: x[n] = y[n] - y[n-1], apply previous property

8. Complex conjugation

If $x[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z)$ with CR, and x[n] is a complex signal, then:

$$x^*[n] \stackrel{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X^*(z^*)$$

with same CR except z = 0.

Proof: apply definition

Consequence

If x[n] is a real signal, the poles / zeroes are either real or in complex pairs

9. Convolution in time

If $x_1[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_1(z)$ with CR1, and $x_2[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_2(z)$ with CR2, then:

$$x[n] = x_1[n] * x_2[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z) = X_1(z) \cdot X_2(z)$$

and CR the intersection of CR1 and CR2.

Proof: use definition

- Very important property!
- ► Can compute the convolution of two signals via the Z transform

10. Correlation in time

If $x_1[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_1(z)$ with CR1, and $x_2[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_2(z)$ with CR2, then:

$$r_{x_1x_2}[I] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1[n]x_2[n-I] \stackrel{Z}{\longleftrightarrow} R_{x_1x_2}(z) = X_1(z) \cdot X_2(z^{-1})$$

and CR the intersection of CR1 and with the CR of $X_2(z^{-1})$ (see reflection property)

Proof: correlation = convolution with second signal reflected, use convolution and reflection properties

11. Initial value theorem

If x[n] is a causal signal, then

$$x[0] = \lim_{z \to \infty} X(z)$$

Proof:

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x[n]z^{-n} = x[0] + x[1]z^{-1} + x[2]z^{-2} + \dots$$

When $z \to \infty$, all terms z^{-k} vanish.

Common Z transform pairs

► Easily found all over the Internet

Sequence	Transform	ROC
$\delta[n]$	1	All z
u[n]	$\frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}$	z > 1
-u[-n-1]	$\frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}$	z < 1
$\delta[n-m]$	z^{-m}	All z except 0 or ∞
$a^n u[n]$	$\frac{1}{1-az^{-1}}$	z > a
$-a^n u[-n-1]$	$\frac{1}{1-az^{-1}}$	z < a
$na^nu[n]$	$\frac{az^{-1}}{(1-az^{-1})^2}$	z > a
$-na^nu[-n-1]$	$\frac{az^{-1}}{(1-az^{-1})^2}$	z < a
$\begin{cases} a^n & 0 \le n \le N - 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	$\frac{1-a^Nz^{-N}}{1-az^{-1}}$	z > 0
$\cos(\omega_0 n)u[n]$	$\frac{1-\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1}}{1-2\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1}+z^{-2}}$	z > 1
$r^n \cos(\omega_0 n) u[n]$	$\frac{1 - r\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1}}{1 - 2r\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1} + r^2z^{-2}}$	z > r



Rational functions

- Many Z transforms are in the form of a rational function, i.e. a fraction where
 - numerator = polynomial in z^{-1} or z
 - denominator = polynomial in z^{-1} or z

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

Example:

$$X(z) = \frac{3 + 2z^{-1} + 4z^{-2}}{1 - 5z^{-2} + 7z^{-4}}$$

Poles and zeros

- A polynomial is completely determined by its roots and a scaling factor
- **Definition**: the **zeros** of X(z) are the roots of the numerator B(z)
- **Definition**: the **poles** of X(z) are the roots of the denominator A(z)
- ▶ The zeros are usually named $z_1, z_2, ...z_M$, and the poles $p_1, p_2, ...p_N$.

The transform X(z) can be rewritten as:

$$X(z) = \frac{b_0}{a_0} \cdot z^{N-M} \cdot \frac{(z-z_1)...(z-z_M)}{(z-p_1)...(z-z_N)} = \frac{b_0}{a_0} \cdot \frac{(1-z_1z^{-1})...(1-z_Mz^{-1})}{(1-p_1z^{-1})...(1-z_Nz^{-1})}$$

It has:

- M zeros with finite values
- N poles with finite values
- \blacktriangleright and either N-M zeros in 0, if N > M, or N-M poles in 0, if N < M (trivial poles/zeros)

Graphical representation

- ➤ The graphical representation of poles and zeros in the complex place is called the pole-zero plot
- ► Graphical: poles = "x", zeros = "0"
- CR cannot contain poles
- Example: at whiteboard

III.3 Inverse Z transform for rational functions

Methods for computing the Inverse Z Transform

1. Direct evaluation using the Cauchy integral

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

- 2. Decomposition as continuous power series
- 3. Partial fraction decomposition

Partial fraction decomposition

Any rational function

$$\frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + b_2 z - 2 + \dots + b_M z^{-M}}{a_0 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z - 2 + \dots + a_N z^{-N}}$$

can be decomposed in partial fractions:

$$c_0 + c_1 z^{-1} + ... c_{N-M} z^{-(M-N)} + \frac{A_1}{z - p_1} + ... \frac{A_N}{z - p_N}$$

- Each pole has a corresponding partial fraction
- ▶ First terms appear if $M \le N$
- Based on linearity, we invert each term separately (simple)

Procedure for Inverse Z Transform

$$X(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)}$$

- 1. If $M \ge N$, divide numerator to denominator to obtain the first terms. The remaining fraction is $X_1(z) = \frac{B_1(z)}{A(z)}$, with numerator degree strictly smaller then denominator
- 2. In the remaining fraction, eliminate the negative powers of z by multiplying with z^N
- 3. Divide by z,

$$\frac{X_1(z)}{z} = \frac{B_1(z)}{zA(z)}$$

4. Compute the poles of $\frac{X_1(z)}{z}$ and decompose in partial fractions:

$$\frac{X_1(z)}{z} = \frac{A_1}{z - p_1} + \dots$$

Procedure for Inverse Z Transform

5. Multiply back with z:

$$X_1(z) = A_1 \frac{z}{z - p_1} + \dots$$

6. Convert each term back to the time domain

Computation of partial fractions coefficients

If all poles are distinct:

$$A_k = (z - p_k) \frac{X(z)}{z}|_{z = p_k}$$

- If poles are in complex conjugate pairs
 - group the two fractions into a single fraction of degree 2
- ▶ If there exist m multiple poles of same value (pole order m > 1):

$$\frac{A_{1k}}{z - p_k} + \frac{A_{2k}}{(z - p_k)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_{mk}}{(z - p_k)^m}$$

$$A_{ik} = \frac{1}{(m - i)!} \frac{d^{m - i}}{dz^{m - i}} \left[(z - p_k)^m \cdot \frac{X(z)}{z} \right]|_{z = p_k}$$

* example for m = 2

Real signals and complex poles/zeros

- ► Consequence of the complex-conjugate property of Z transform:
- ▶ A real signal x[n] can have only
 - real poles or zeroes
 - complex poles and zeroes in conjugate pairs, which can be grouped into a single term of degree 2, with real coefficients
- ▶ If a Z transform has a complex pole / zero without its conjugate pair, then the corresponding signal x[n] is complex

Position of poles and time behavior

▶ A rational Z transform X(z) = sum of partial fractions

 \leftarrow

The signal x[n] is a sum of exponential signals (for each partial fraction / pole)

▶ In the following, we will analyze the relation between the position of the pole and the signal in time

Position of poles and time behaviour - 1 pole

- Consider a Z transform with 1 pole, analyze the look of the corresponding signal
- Consider the pole value is a
 - ▶ Consider only real signals x[n] —> a is real
 - ▶ Consider causal signal $x[n \longrightarrow CR \text{ is } |z| > |a|$
- ▶ Therefore the Z transform is of the type:

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{z}{z - a}, CR : |z| > |a|$$

▶ Therefore the signal x[n] is of the type:

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

Position of poles and time behavior - 1 pole

Scenarios for a single real pole in a:

- lacktriangle Pole inside the unit circle (|a|<1) —> exponential decreasing signal
- lacktriangle Pole outside the unit circle (|a|>1) —> exponential increasing signal
- lacktriangle Pole exactly on unit circle (|a|=1) —> not increasing, not decreasing
- ▶ Negative pole (a < 0) –> alternating signal
- ▶ Positive value (a > 0) -> non-alternating signal

Position of poles and time behavior - 1 pole

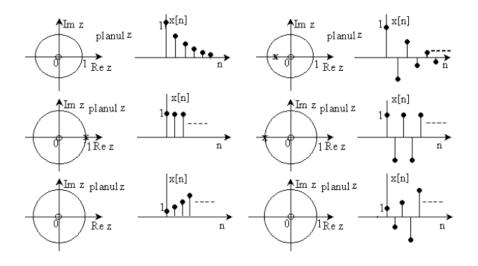


Figure 2: Signal behavior for 1 pole

Position of poles and time behavior - 1 double pole

$$X(z) = \frac{az^{-1}}{(1 - az^{-1})^2}, CR : |z| > |a|$$
$$x[n] = na^n u[n]$$

A double pole in a:

- ▶ Pole inside the unit circle (|a| < 1) → decreasing signal
- ▶ Pole outside the unit circle (|a| > 1) → increasing signal
- ▶ Pole exactly on unit circle (|a| = 1) -> increasing signal
- ▶ Negative pole (a < 0) -> alternating signal
- ▶ Positive value (a > 0) → non-alternating signal

Position of poles and time behavior - 1 double pole

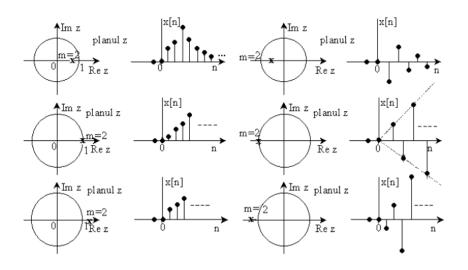


Figure 3: Signal behavior for 1 double pole

Position of poles and time behavior - conjugate poles

$$X(z) = \frac{1 - az^{-1}\cos\omega_0}{1 - 2z^{-1}\cos\omega_0 + z^{-2}}, CR: |z| > |a|$$
$$x[n] = na^n u[n]$$

A pair of complex conjugate poles:

- a sinusoidal with exponential envelope
 - phase of poles -> frequency of sinusoidal signal
 - modulus of poles -> exponential envelope
 - poles inside unit circle -> decreasing signal
 - poles outside unit circle -> increasing signal
 - ▶ poles on unit circle → oscillating signal, constant amplitude

What if poles are double?

- * poles on unit circle --> increasing signal
- * otherwise similar

Position of poles and time behavior - conjugate poles

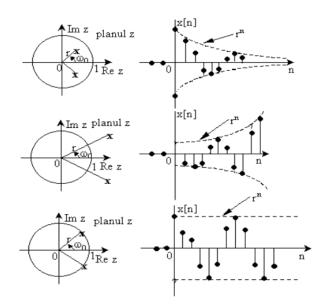
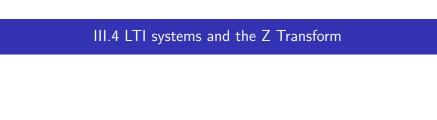


Figure 4: Signal behavior for 1 double pole

Position of poles and time behavior

- ► A Z transform can be decomposed into partial fractions, i.e. separate poles
- ► Analyzing the individual behavior of poles -> tells something about whole signal
- Conclusions (for real signals, causal):
 - all poles inside unit circle -> bounded signal
 - simple poles on unit circle -> bounded signal
 - otherwise -> unbounded signal
 - ▶ poles inside unit circle, closer to origin → fast decrease of signal
 - ▶ poles inside unit circle, closer to unit circle → slow decrease of signal



System function of a LTI system

▶ Considering a LTI system with h[n], input signal x[n] -> output is convolution

$$y[n] = x[n] * h[n]$$

▶ In Z transform, convolution = product of transforms

$$Y(z) = X(z) \cdot H(z)$$

- ► The system function of a LTI system is the Z transform of the impulse response *h*[*n*]
- ▶ The system function of a LTI system is:

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

System function and the difference equation

▶ Any LTI system is characterized by a **difference equation**:

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

$$= -a_1 y[n-1] - a_2 y[n-2] - \dots - a_N y[n-N] + b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1] - a_1 y[n-1]$$
or

$$y[n] + \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{m} b_k x[n-k]$$
$$y[n] + a_1 y[n-1] + a_2 y[n-2] + \dots + a_N y[n-N] = b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1] + \dots + b_M x[n-1]$$

System function and the difference equation

▶ The system function H(z) can be derived directly from the difference equation:

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

Particular cases of system functions

- ▶ FIR systems: $a_k = 0$
 - has only zeroes, no poles (all-zero system)

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

- ▶ All-pole system: $b_k = 0, k \ge 1$ (must have at least $b_0 \ne 0$)
 - has only poles

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{b_0}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k z^{-k}}$$

Otherwise, in general, we have a pole-zero system, with both poles and zeroes

Output of the system, no initial conditions

- Consider a causal LTI system with initial conditions = 0 (relaxed system)
 - ▶ Remember: I.C. are relevant for IIR implementations (y[n-k part), not FIR)
- Input signal:

$$x[n] \stackrel{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{Q(z)}$$

Impulse response / System function:

$$h[n] \stackrel{\mathrm{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} H(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)}$$

Output signal:

$$y[n] = x[n] * h[n] \stackrel{\mathbb{Z}}{\longleftrightarrow} Y(z) = X(z)H(z) = \frac{N(z)B(z)}{Q(z)A(z)}$$

Some poles and zeros might simplify, if exactly identical

Natural and forced response

- Assume all poles are simple (i.e. no multiplicity)
- \triangleright Assume all poles \neq all zeros, so no simplification
- ▶ Call the poles of X(z) q_i and the poles of H(z), p_i
- Then

$$Y(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{A_k}{1 - p_k z^{-1}} + \sum_{k=1}^{L} \frac{Q_k}{1 - q_k z^{-1}}$$

and y[n] is

$$y[n] = \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^{N} A_k(p_k)^n u[n]}_{natural\ response} + \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^{L} Q_k(q_k)^n u[n]}_{forced\ response}$$

Natural and forced response

- ▶ Natural response $y_{nr}[n]$ = the part given by the poles of the system
- ▶ Forced response $y_{fr}[n]$ = given by the poles of the input signal
- This output is the zero-state response of the system (no initial conditions)
- If some poles have higher multiplicity, the formulas will be slightly changed

Output of the system, with initial conditions

- ▶ The input signal is causal and applied at moment n = 0
- ▶ The output signal is causal and is computed starting from n = 0
- ▶ We have initial conditions y[-1], y[-2], ...y[n-N]
- ▶ Where do initial condition appear in the Z transform?

Unilateral Z transform

Initial conditions appear here

$$y[n] \stackrel{Z}{\longleftrightarrow} Y(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y[n]z^{-n}$$

$$y[n-k] \stackrel{Z}{\longleftrightarrow} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y[n-k]z^{-n} =$$

$$= \sum_{m=-k}^{\infty} y[m]z^{-m-k}$$

$$= z^{-k} (\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} y[m]z^{-m} + \sum_{m=1}^{k} y[-m]z^{m})$$

$$= \underbrace{z^{-k}Y(z)}_{normal} + z^{-k} \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{k} y[-n]}_{LC} z^{n}$$

This is known as the *unilateral Z transform*, shifting in time

Output of the system

▶ Replacing this in the system's difference equation

$$y[n] + \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{m} b_k x[n-k]$$

yields

$$Y(z)\left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k z^{-k}\right) + \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k z^{-k} \sum_{n=1}^{k} y[-n] z^n = X(z) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k z^{-k}\right)$$

$$Y(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k z^{-k}} + \frac{-\sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k z^{-k} \sum_{n=1}^{k} y[-n] z^n}{1 + \sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k z^{-k}}$$

▶ Therefore

$$Y(z) = H(z)X(z) + \frac{N_0(z)}{A(z)}$$

with

$$N_0(z) = -\sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k z^{-k} \sum_{n=1}^{k} y[-n]z^n$$

Zero-state and zero-input outputs

- ► The first part = **zero-state response** (state = initial conditions = 0)
- ► The second part = zero-input response (when no input)
- ► Total output = sum of all components
- ▶ But zero-input response has the same poles as the system function, so

$$y_{zi}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{N} D_k(p_k)^n u[n]$$

- Zero-input response is just like natural response, with different coefficients
 - The initial conditions just change the coefficients of the system's natural response

Transient and permanent response

- For a stable system, all system poles $|p_k| < 1$, so natural response (including initial conditions) is made of decreasing exponentials
- ▶ ** For a stable system, the natural response dies out exponentially**
- ▶ The natural response is called a **transient response**
- Input signals typically last longer, or infinitely (poles on the unit circle)
 the forced response is a permanent response
- Operating regimes:
 - when the input signal is first applied, and the transient response is present, the system is in transient regime
 - When the transient response has died out, the system remains in permanent regime, where only the input signal determines the output
- ightharpoonup Example: apply a infinitely long sinusoidal, starting from n=0

Stability of a system and H(z)

- Stable system: bounded input -> bounded output
- ▶ Reminder: A system is stable if

$$\sum |h[n]| < \infty (\textit{convergent})$$

▶ For a stable system, with H(z)

$$|H(z)| \le \sum |h[n]| \cdot |z^{-n}| \le \sum |h[n]| < \infty$$

considering |z| = 1, i.e. on the unit circle.

- A LTI system is stable if the unit circle in inside the Convergence Region
 - one can prove the reciprocal, so there is equivalence
- ▶ If the system is causal, CR = exterior of a circle given by the largest pole, so all poles must be inside unit circle
- ► A causal LTI system is stable if all the poles are inside the unit circle

Stability of a system and H(z)

► Alternative explanation: if one pole is outside unit circle, the term corresponding to its partial fraction will be increasing —> whole signal is unbounded