

Chapter 3: The Z – Transform and its Application to the Analysis of LTI System

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

$$x(z) \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n} \quad (3.1.1)$$

Where z - complex variable.

It sometimes called ***the direct z-transform***.

The inverse procedure is called the ***inverse z-transform***.

$$X(z) \equiv Z \{ x(n) \} \quad (3.1.2)$$

$$x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) \quad (3.1.3)$$

The ***region of convergence (ROC)*** of $X(z)$ is the set of all values z for which $X(z)$ attains a finite value .

3.1 The z-transform

Let us express the *complex variable* z in polar form as

$$\mathbf{z = r e^{j\theta}} \quad (3.1.4)$$

$r = |z|$ and $\theta = \angle z$, Then

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

In the *ROC* of $X(z)$, $|x(z)| < \infty$, then

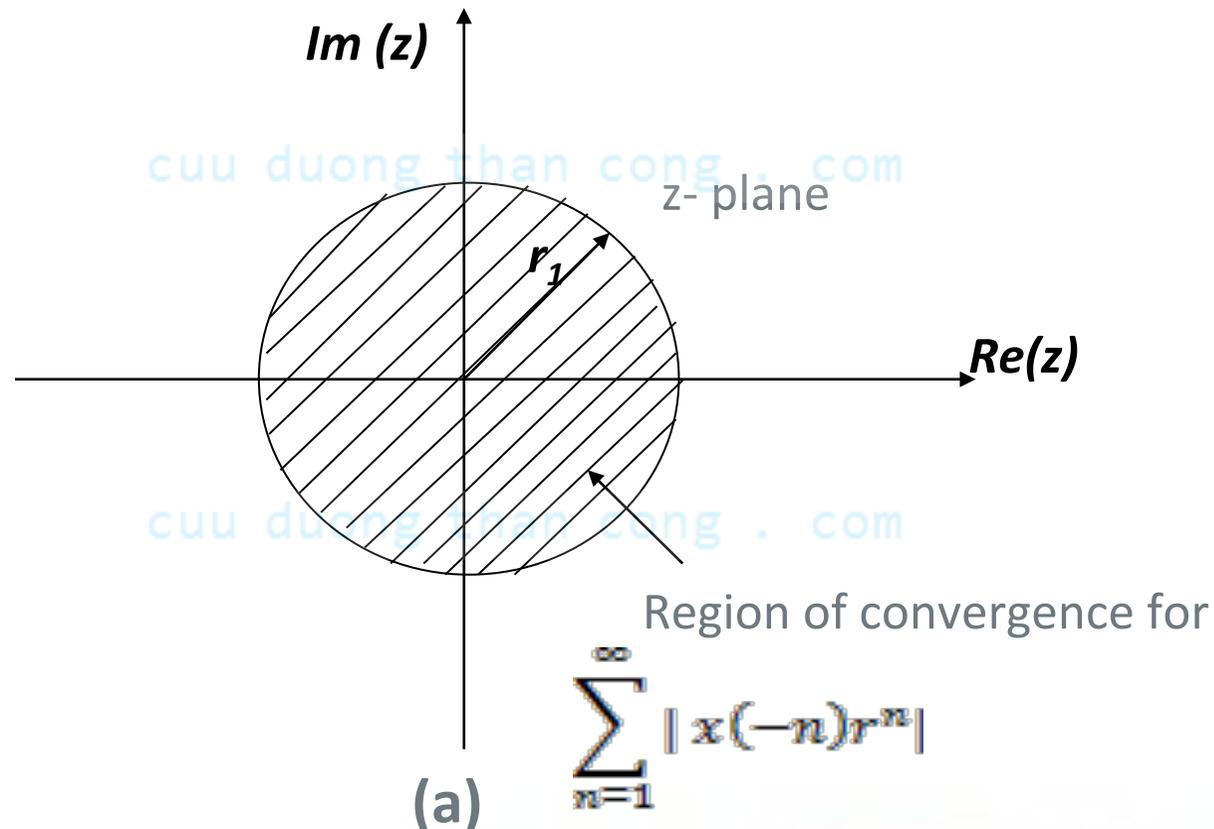
$$\mathbf{|X(z)| \leq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)r^{-n}|} \quad (3.1.5)$$

$$\mathbf{|X(z)| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x(-n)r^n| + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{x(n)}{r^n} \right|} \quad (3.1.6)$$

3.1.1 The direct z-transform

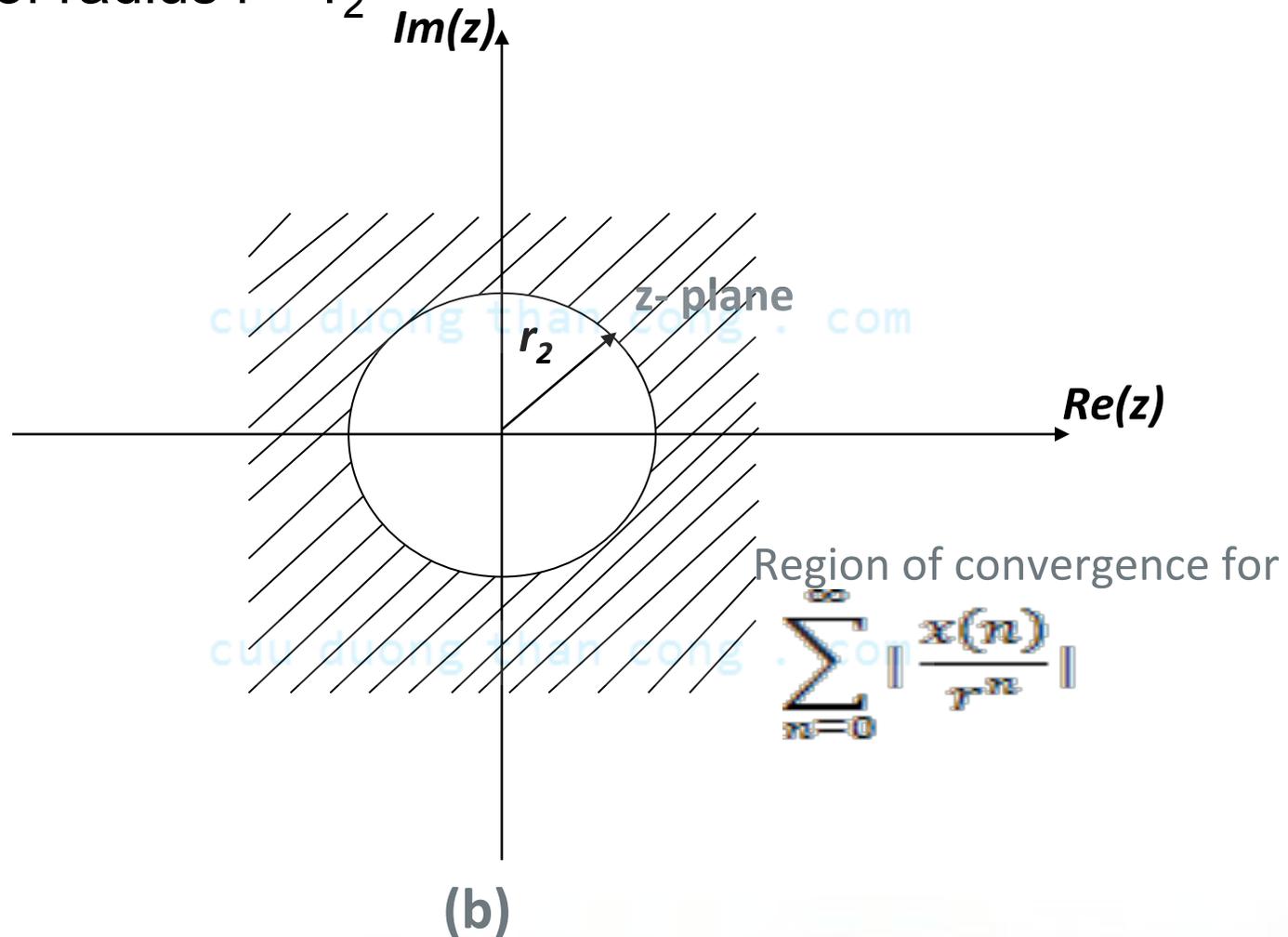
Figure 3.1 *Region of convergence* for $X(z)$ and its corresponding causal and anticausal components.

ROC for the first sum consists of all points in a circle of some radius $r_1 < \infty$.



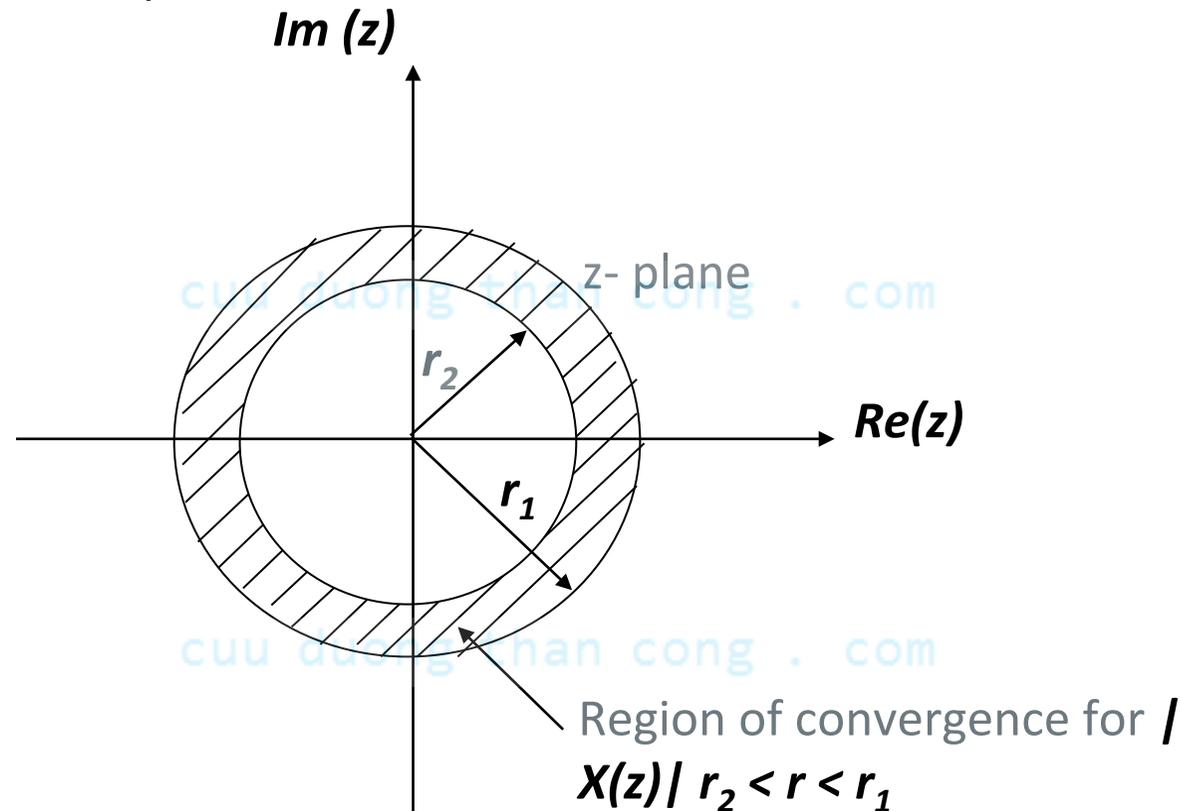
3.1.1 The direct z-transform

ROC for the second sum consists of all points outside a circle of radius $r > r_2$



3.1.1 The direct z-transform

ROC of $X(z)$ is generally specified as the annular region in the z -plane, $r_2 < r < r_1$,

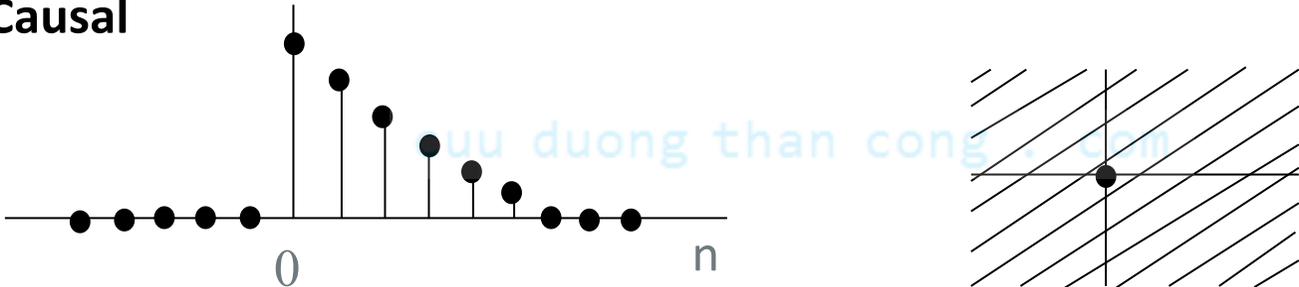


(c)

3.1.1 The direct z-transform

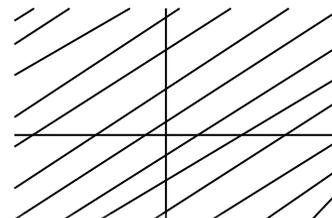
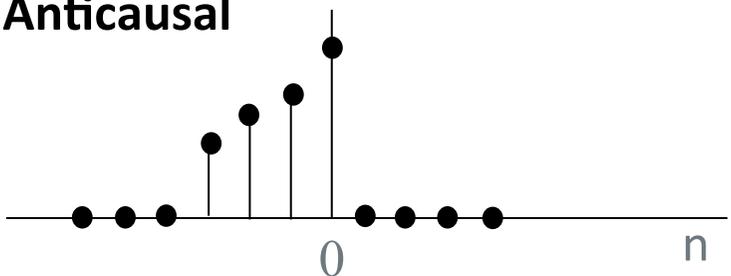
A discrete-time $x(n]$ is **uniquely** determined by *its* z-transform $x(z)$ and the *region of convergence* of $x(z)$.

Table 3.1 Characteristic Families of signal with their corresponding ROC.

Signal	ROC
Finite- Duration Signal	
Causal	 <p data-bbox="1583 965 1889 1072">Entire z-plane except $z=0$</p>

3.1.1 The direct z-transform

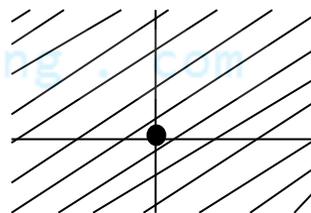
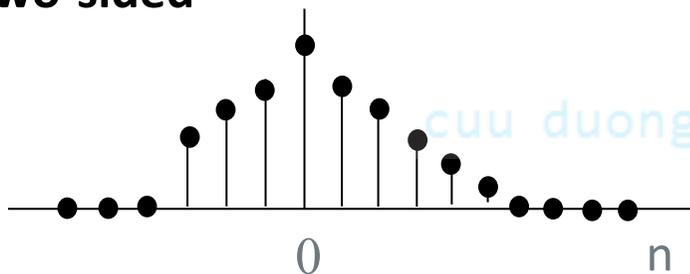
Anticausal



Entire z-plane
except $z = \infty$

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Two-sided



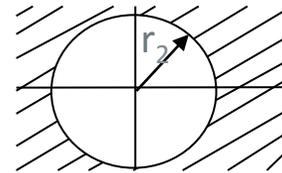
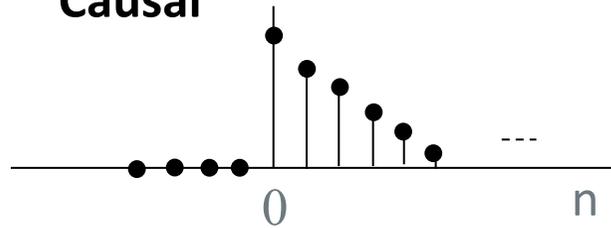
Entire z-plane
except $z = 0$
and $z = \infty$

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3.1.1 The direct z-transform

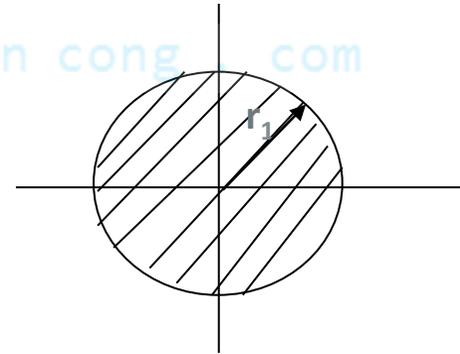
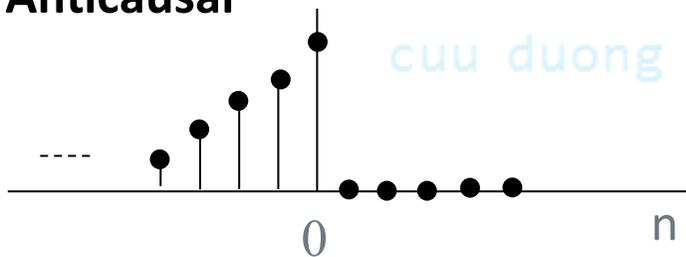
Infinite – Duration Signals

Causal



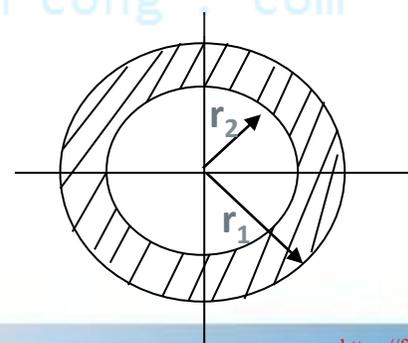
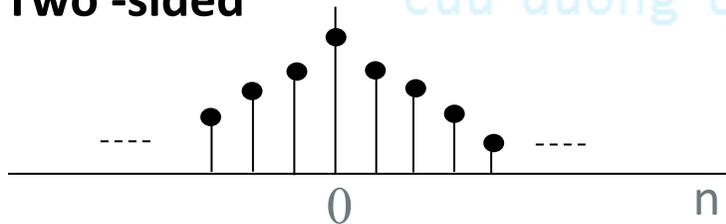
$$|z| > r_2$$

Anticausal



$$|z| < r_1$$

Two-sided



$$r_2 < |z| < r_1$$

3.1.1 The direct z-transform

These types of signal are called ***right-sided***, ***left-sided***, and ***finite-duration two-sided***, signals.

*If there is a ROC for an infinite duration two-sided signal, it is a **ring (annular region)** in the z-plane.*

The ***one-sided*** or ***unilateral z-transform*** given by

$$X^+(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n} \quad (3.1.11)$$



3.1.2 The Inverse z-Transform

The procedure for transform from the z-domain to the time domain is called ***the inversion z-transform***.

Cauchy integral theorem.

We have

$$X(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k)z^{-k} \quad (3.1.12)$$

then

$$\oint_C X(z)z^{n-1} dz = \oint_C \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k)z^{n-1-k} dz \quad (3.1.13)$$

Where C the closed contour in the ROC of $X(z)$.

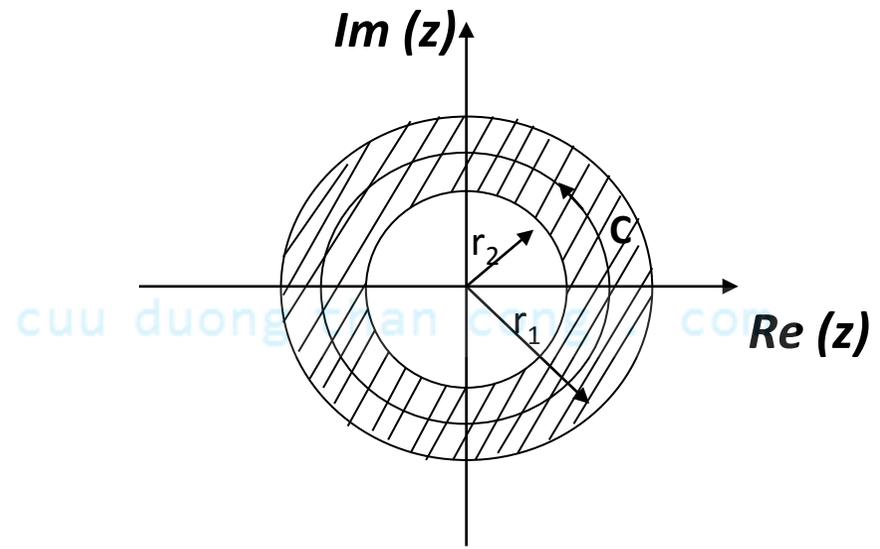
3.1.2 The Inverse z-Transform

or

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X(z) z^{n-1} dz \quad (3.1.16)$$

Figure 3.1.5 Contour C for integral in (3.1.13)

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3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

+ Linearity

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

then

$$x(n) = a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) = a_1 X_1(z) + a_2 X_2(z) \quad (3.2.1)$$

+ Time shifting cuu duong than cong . com

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

then $x(n-k) \xleftrightarrow{z} z^{-k} X(z)$ (3.2.5)

+ Scaling in the z-domain than cong . com

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

then $a^n x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(a^{-1}z)$, ROC: $|a|r_1 < |z| < |a|r_2$ (3.2.9)

for any constant a , real or complex.



3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

+ Time reversal

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } x(n) &\stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} X(z), & \text{ROC: } r_1 < |z| < r_2 \\ \text{then } x(-n) &\stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} X(z^{-1}), & \text{ROC: } 1/r_2 < |z| < 1/r_1 \end{aligned} \quad (3.2.12)$$

+ Differentiation in the z-domain

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } x(n) &\stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} X(z) \\ \text{then } nx(n) &\stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} -z dX(z)/dz \end{aligned} \quad (3.2.14)$$

+ Convolution of two sequences

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } x_1(n) &\stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} X_1(z), & x_2(n) &\stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} X_2(z), \\ \text{then } x(n) = x_1(n) * x_2(n) &\stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} X(z) = X_1(z) X_2(z) \end{aligned} \quad (3.2.17)$$



3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

+ Correlation of two sequences

if $x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_1(z)$, and $x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_2(z)$

then

$$r_{x_1x_2}(l) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n)x_2(n-l) \leftrightarrow R_{x_1x_2}(z) = X_1(z)X_2(z^{-1}) \quad (3.2.18)$$

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+ Multiplication of two sequences

if $x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_1(z)$, $x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_2(z)$

then

$$x(n) = x_1(n)x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X_1(v)X_2\left(\frac{z}{v}\right) v^{-1} dv \quad (3.2.19)$$

C – closed contour that encloses the origin and lies within the region of convergence common to both $X_1(v)$ and $X_2(1/v)$



3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

+ Parseval's relation

If $x_1(n)$ and $x_2(n)$ are complex-valued sequences, then

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n)x_2^*(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X_1(v)X_2^*\left(\frac{1}{v^*}\right)v^{-1}dv \quad (3.2.22)$$

provided that $r_{1l}r_{2l} < 1 < r_{1u}r_{2u}$,

where $r_{1l} < |z| < r_{1u}$ and $r_{2l} < |z| < r_{2u}$ are the ROC of $X_1(z)$ and $X_2(z)$.

+ The initial value theorem

If $x(n)$ is *causal* then

$$x(0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} X(z) \quad (3.2.23)$$



3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

+ **Table 3.2** *Properties of the z-transform*

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 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	$x(-n)$	$X(z^{-1})$	$1/r_1 < z < 1/r_2$
Conjugation	$x^*(n)$	$X^*(z^*)$	ROC

3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

Real part	$Re\{x(n)\}$	$1/2[X(z) + X^*(z^*)]$	Includes ROC
Imaginary part	$Im\{x(n)\}$	$1/2j[X(z) - X^*(z^*)]$	Includes ROC
Differentiation in	$nx(n)$	$-z \frac{dX(z)}{dz}$	$r_2 < z < r_1$
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 ₁ 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, $r_1 r_2 < z < r_1 u r_2 u$
Parseval's relation	$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n)x_2^*(n)$	$= \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X_1(v) X_2^*\left(\frac{1}{v^*}\right) v^{-1} dv$	

3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

Table 3.3 Some common 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$

3.2 Properties of the z-Transform

	Signal, $x(n)$	z- transform, $x(z)$	ROC
8	$(\sin\omega_0 n) u(n)$	$\frac{z^{-1}\sin\omega_0}{1 - 2z^{-1}\cos\omega_0 + z^{-2}}$	$ z > 1$
9	$(a^n \cos\omega_0 n) u(n)$	$\frac{1 - az^{-1}\cos\omega_0}{1 - 2az^{-1}\cos\omega_0 + a^2z^{-2}}$	$ z > a $
10	$(a^n \sin\omega_0 n) u(n)$	$\frac{az^{-1}\sin\omega_0}{1 - 2az^{-1}\cos\omega_0 + a^2z^{-2}}$	$ z > a $

3.3 Rational z- transforms

+ Poles and Zeros

The **zeros** of a z-transform $X(z)$ are the values of z for which $X(z) = 0$

The **pole** of a z-transform are value of z for which $X(z) = \infty$

+ If $X(z)$ is a rational function, then

$$X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_m z^{-m}}{a_0 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_N z^{-N}} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k}} \quad (3.3.1)$$

3.3.1 Poles and Zeros

+ If $a_0 \neq 0$, $b_0 \neq 0$

$$X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{M(z)} = \frac{b_0}{a_0} z^{-M+N} \frac{(z - z_1)(z - z_2) \dots (z - z_M)}{(z - p_1)(z - p_2) \dots (z - p_N)}$$

$$X(z) = G z^{N-M} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - z_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - p_k)} \quad (3.3.2)$$

Where: $G = \frac{b_0}{a_0}$

+ $X(z)$ has **M finite zeros** at $z = z_1, z_2, \dots, z_M$

N finite poles at $z = r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N$

3.3.1 Poles and Zeros

- + We can represent $X(z)$ graphically by a *pole-zero plot* in the complex plane, which shows the location of **poles** by **crosses (x)** and the location of **zeros** by **circles (o)**.
- + The z-transform $X(z)$ is a complex function of the complex variable $z = \text{Re}(z) + j\text{Im}(z)$

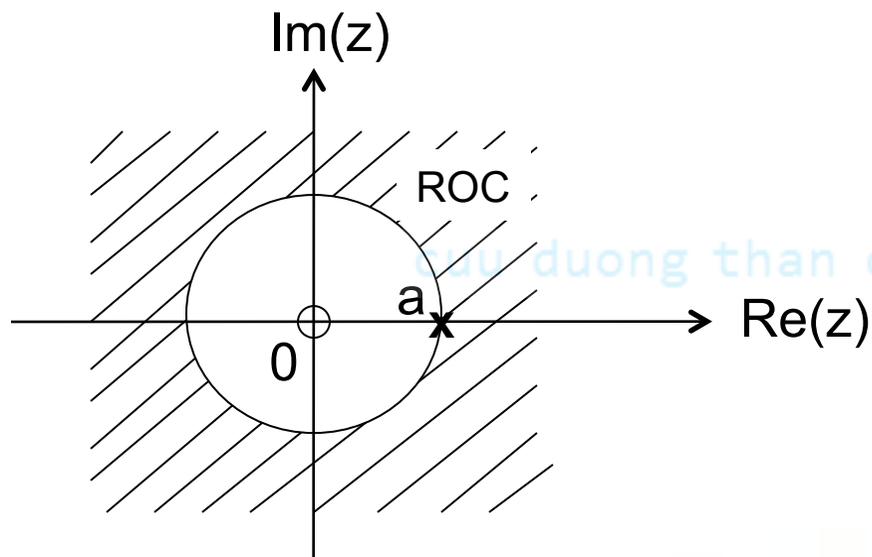


Figure 3.7 Pole-zero plot for the causal exponential signal $x(n) = a^n u(n)$ $a > 0$

$$X(z) = \frac{z}{z - a} \quad \text{ROC: } |z| > a$$

3.3.1 Poles and Zeros

+ $|X(z)|$ is a real and positive function of z . Since z represents a point in the complex plane, $|X(z)|$ is a *two-dimensional function* and describes a “surface”.

For example the z-transform

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

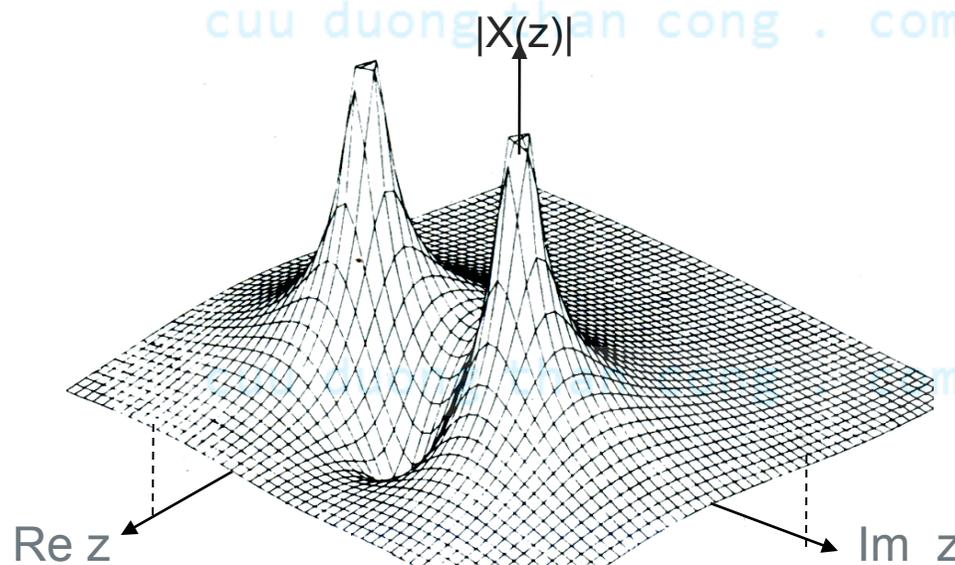


Figure 3.3.4 Graph of $|X(z)|$ for the z-transform in (3.3.3)

dce 3.3.2 Pole location and time-domain behavior for causal signals

- + We consider the relation between *the z-plane location* of a pole pair and the *form of the corresponding signal* in the time domain.
- + The **circle** $|z| = 1$ has a radius of 1, it is called *the unit circle*.
- + For example

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

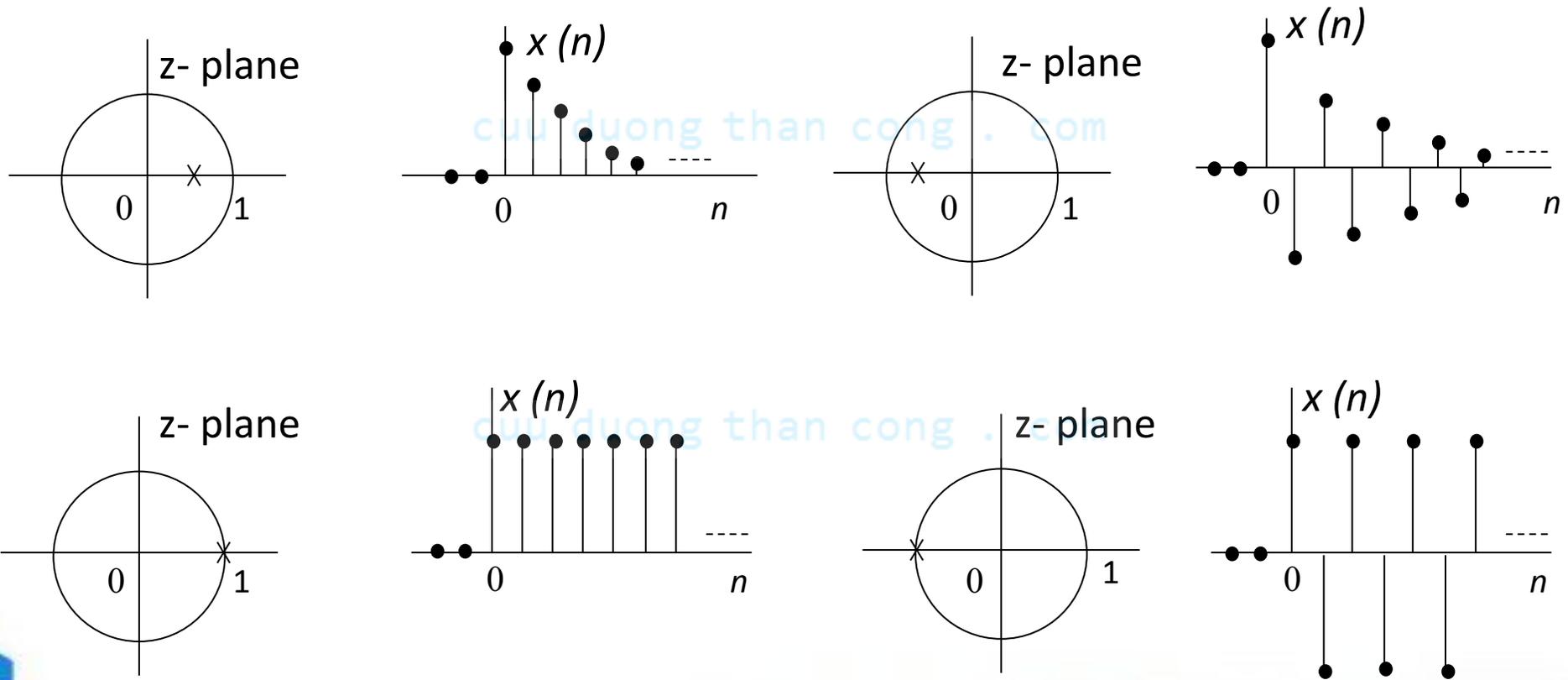
having one zero at $z_1 = 0$ and the pole at $p_1 = a$ on the real axis, (see fig. 3.7, fig.3.11)



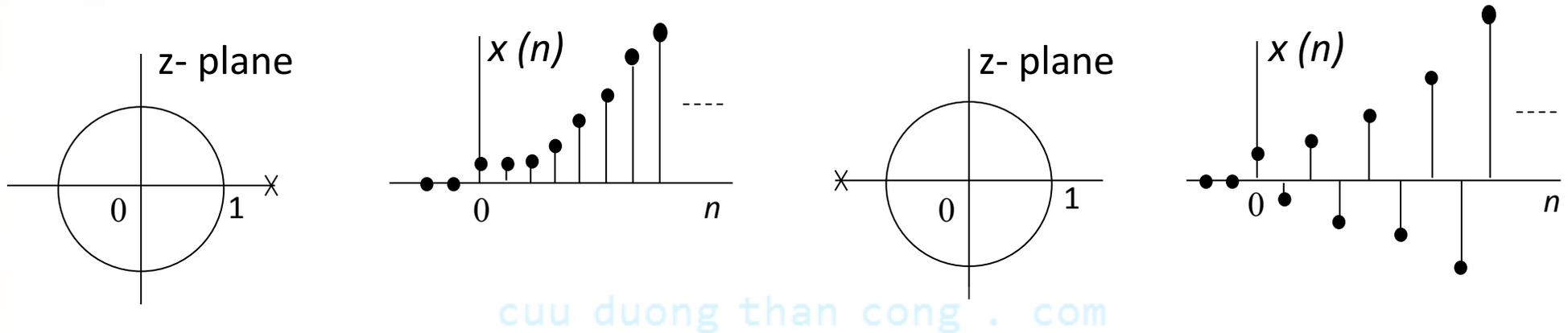
3.3.2 Pole location and time-domain behavior for causal signals

signals

Figure 3.11 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*.



3.3.2 Pole location and time-domain behavior for causal signals



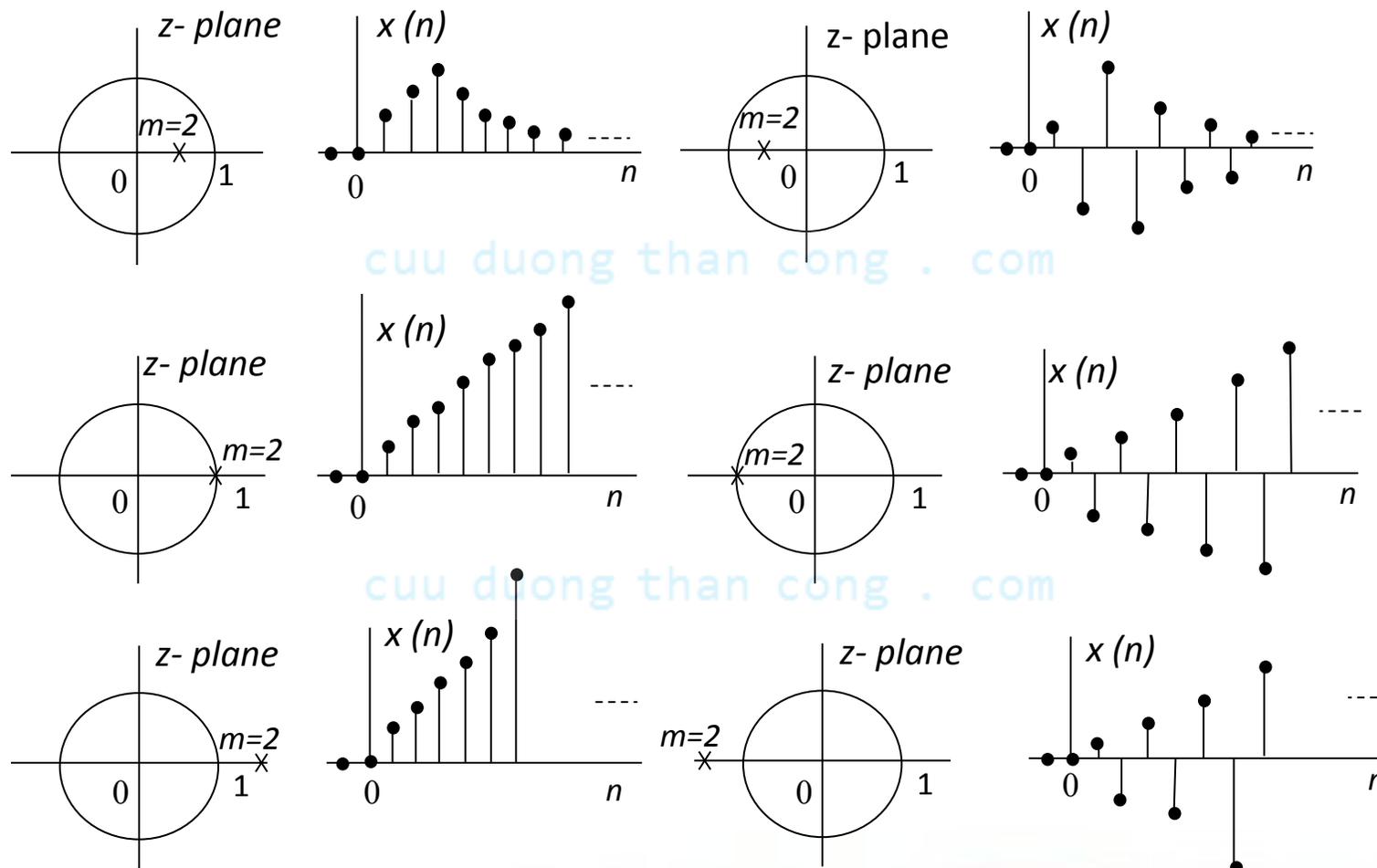
The **signal is decaying** if the pole is inside the unit circle, **fixed** if the pole is on the unit circle, and **growing** if the pole is outside the unit circle .

A causal real signal with a **double real pole** has the form :
 $X(n) = na^n u(n)$ (see table 3.3)

A double real pole on the unit circle results in an **unbound signal** (see Fig 3.3.6)

3.3.2 Pole location and time-domain behavior for causal signals

Figure 3.12 Time-domain behavior of *causal signal* corresponding to a **double ($m=2$) real pole**, as a function of the pole location.



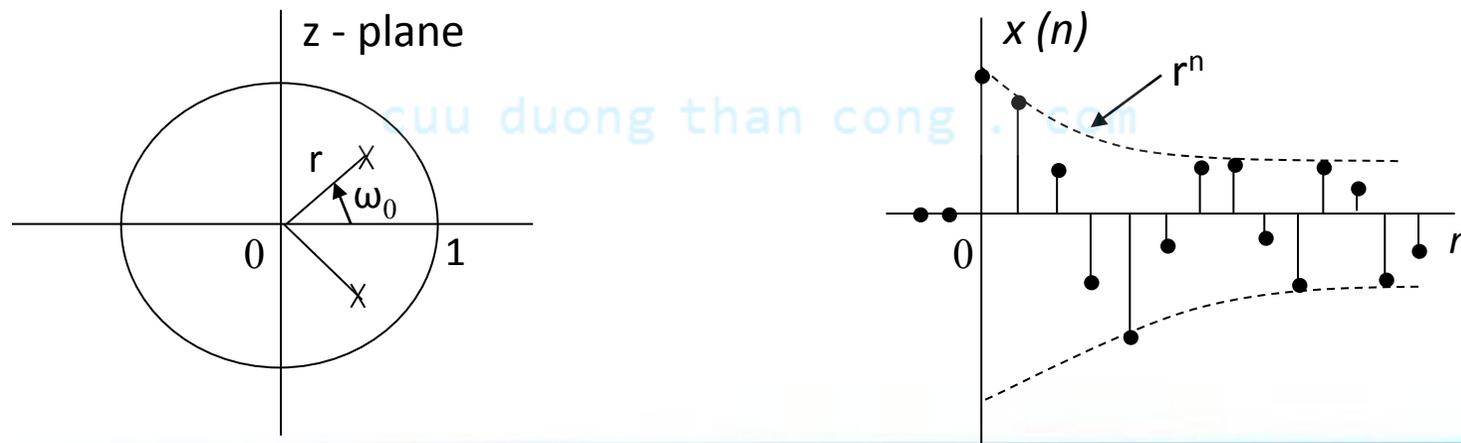
3.3.2 Pole location and time-domain behavior for causal signals

Figure 3.13 illustrates the case of a *pair of complex – conjugate poles*.

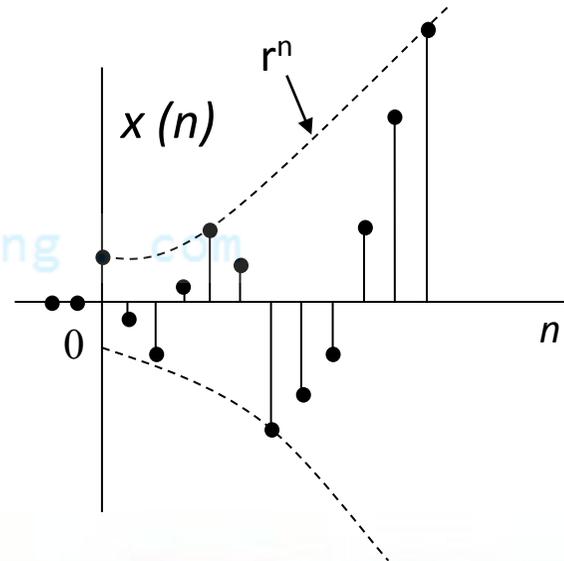
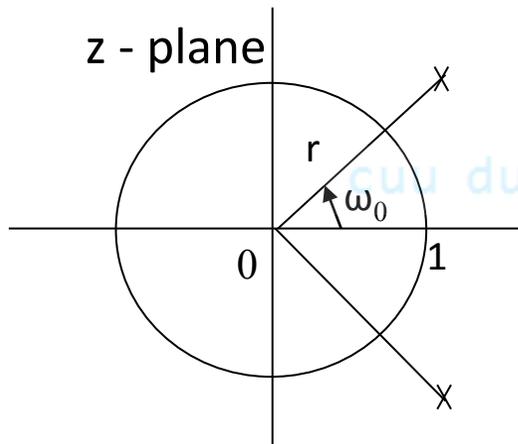
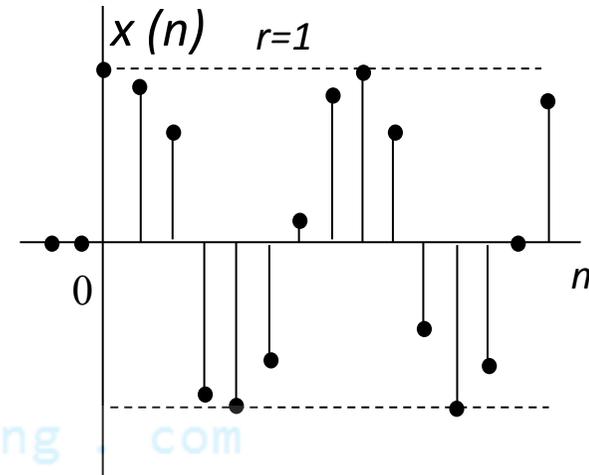
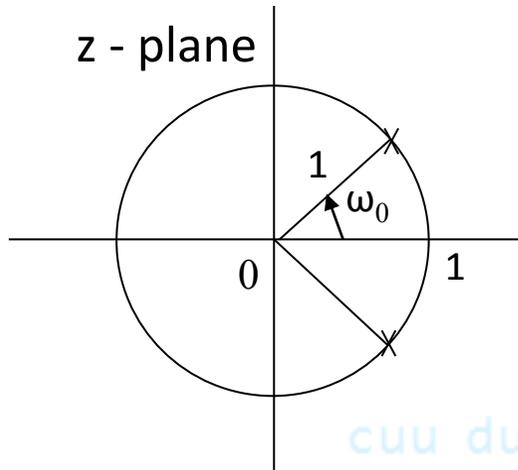
This configuration of poles results in an *exponentially weighted sinusoidal signal*.

The *amplitude* of the signal is **growing** if $r > 1$, **constant** if $r = 1$ (sinusoidal signals), and **decaying** if $r < 1$.

Figure 3.13 A pair of complex- conjugate poles corresponds to causal signals with oscillatory behavior.



3.3.2 Pole location and time-domain behavior for causal signals



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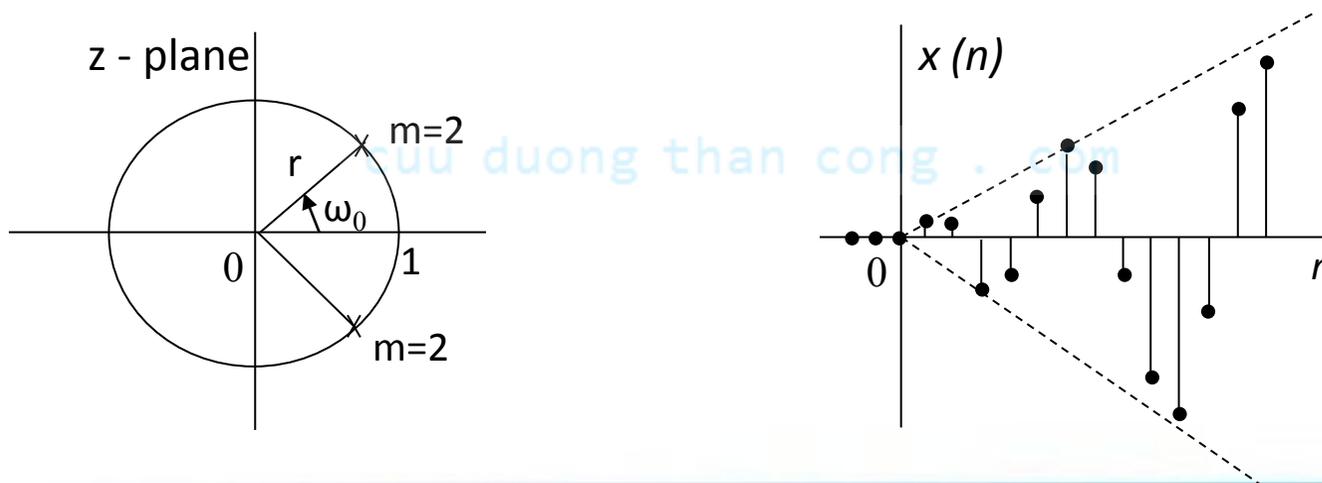
3.3.2 Pole location and time-domain behavior for causal signals

Fig 3.14 shows the behavior of a causal signal with a double pair of poles on the unit circle.

A signal with a *pole near the origin* decays more rapidly than one associated with a *pole near the unit circle*.

Everything we have said about causal signals applies as well to *causal LTI systems*.

Figure 3.14 Causal signal corresponding to a double pair of complex – conjugate poles on the unit circle.



3.3.3 The system Function of a Linear Time-Invariant System

$$Y(z) = H(z)X(z) \quad (3.3.4)$$

$Y(z)$ - the z-transform of the output sequence $y(n)$.

$X(z)$ - the z-transform of the input sequence $x(n)$.

$H(z)$ - the z-transform of the unit sample response $h(n)$.

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} \quad (3.3.5)$$

$$H(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} h(n)z^{-n} \quad (3.3.6)$$

$H(z)$ is called the **systems function**.

We have linear constant-coefficient difference equation:

$$y(n) = -\sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k) \quad (3.3.7)$$

dce 3.3.3 The system Function of a Linear Time-Invariant System

By applying the time-shifting property, we obtain.

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

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

Or

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}} \quad (3.3.8)$$

+ If $a_k = 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq N$, then

$$H(z) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k} = \frac{1}{z^M} \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{M-k} \quad (3.3.9)$$

$H(z)$ contains M zeros, M th-order at the origin $z = 0$

It is called an **all-zero system**.



3.3.3 The system Function of a Linear Time-Invariant System

System has a finite-duration impulse response (FIR), and it is called an **FIR system** or **moving average (MA) system**.

+ If $b_k = 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq M$, then

$$H(z) = \frac{b_0 z^N}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{N-k}} \quad a_0 \equiv 1 \quad (3.3.10)$$

$H(z)$ consists of N pole, and an N th-order zero at the origin $z = 0$. This system is called an **all-pole system**.

The impulse response of such a system is infinite in duration, and hence it is an **IIR system**.

The general form of the system by (3.3.8) is called a **pole-zero system**, with N poles and M zeros and in **an IIR system**.

3.4 Inversion of the z-transform

The inverse z-transform is formally given by

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X(z) z^{n-1} dz \quad (3.4.1)$$

C - a circle in the ROC of $x(z)$ in the z-plane

+ **There are 3 methods** for the evaluation

1. *Direct evaluation* of (3.4.1), by contour integration.
2. *Expansion into a series of terms*, in the variables z , and z^{-1}
3. *Partial-fraction expansion* and table lookup.



contour Integration + *Cauchy residue theorem*

Let $f(z)$ be a function of the complex variable z , and C be a closed path in the z -plane.

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If the derivative $df(z)/dz$ exists on and inside the contour C and if $f(z)$ has no poles at $z = z_0$, then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = \begin{cases} f(z_0), & \text{if } z_0 \text{ is inside } C \\ 0, & \text{if } z_0 \text{ is outside } C \end{cases} \quad (3.4.2)$$

3.4.1 Inverse z-transform by contour Integration

If the $(k+1)$ order derivative of $f(z)$ exists and $f(z)$ has no poles at $z = z_0$, then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^k} dz = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \left. \frac{d^{k-1} f(z)}{dz^{k-1}} \right|_{z=z_0} & \text{if } z_0 \text{ is outside } C \\ 0, & \text{if } z_0 \text{ is inside } C \end{cases} \quad (3.4.3)$$

Suppose that $p(z) = \frac{f(z)}{g(z)}$

$f(z)$ has no pole inside the contour C

$g(z)$ is a polynomial with distinct roots z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n inside C
then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} dz = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i \quad (3.4.4)$$

Chapter 3: Inverse z-transform by contour Integration

Where $A_i(z) = (z - z_i)p(z) = (z - z_i)f(z)/g(z)$
 (3.4.5)

$\{A_i(z_i)\}$ are residues of the corresponding poles at $z = z_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

In the case the inverse z-transform we have

$$x(n) = \sum_i (z - z_i)X(z)z^{n-1} \Big|_{z=z_i}$$

If $X(z)z^{n-1}$ has no poles inside the contour C for one or more values of n , then $x(n) = 0$ for these values

3.4.2 Inverse z-transform by Power Series

Expansion

Given a z-transform $X(z)$ with its corresponding ROC, we can expand $X(z)$ into a power series of the form.

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n z^{-n} \quad (3.4.7)$$

Which converges in the given ROC. Then, by uniqueness of the z-transform, $X(n) = C_n$ for all n . When $X(z)$ is rational, the expansion can be performed by *long division*.



3.4.2 Inverse z-transform by Power Series Expansion

For example

Determine the inverse z-transform of

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 1.5z^{-1} + 0.5z^{-2}}$$

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Where ROC: $|z| > 1$

3.4.2 Inverse z-transform by Power Series Expansion

Solution.

Since the ROC is the exterior of a circle, we expect $x(n)$ to be a causal signal.

Thus, we seek a power series expansion in negative powers of z .

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{3}{2}z^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}z^{-2}} = 1 + \frac{3}{2}z^{-1} + \frac{7}{4}z^{-2} + \frac{15}{8}z^{-3} + \frac{31}{16}z^{-4} + \dots$$

by comparing this relation with (3.11) we conclude that

$$x(n) = \left\{ 1, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{7}{4}, \frac{15}{8}, \frac{31}{16}, \dots \right\}$$



3.4.3 The inverse z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

The function $X(z)$ as a linear combination.

$$X(z) = \alpha_1 X_1(z) + \alpha_2 X_2(z) + \dots + \alpha_K X_K(z) \quad (3.4.8)$$

Where $X_1(z), \dots, X_K(z)$ are expressions with inverse transform $x_1(n), \dots, x_K(n)$ available in a table of z-transform pairs. Then,

$$x(n) = \alpha_1 x_1(n) + \alpha_2 x_2(n) + \dots + \alpha_K x_K(n) \quad (3.4.9)$$

We assume that $a_0 = 1$, so that (3.3.1) can be expressed as

$$X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{b_0 b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_M z^{-M}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_N z^{-N}} \quad (3.4.10)$$

3.4.3 The inverse z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

Any *improper rational function* ($M \geq N$) can be expressed as.

$$X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = c_0 c_1 z^{-1} + \dots + c_{M-N} z^{-(M-N)} + \frac{N_1(z)}{D_1(z)} \quad (3.4.11)$$

We perform a partial fraction expansion of the proper rational function. From (3.4.10) with $a_N \neq 0$ and $M < N$. Then, we invert each of the terms.

$$X(z) = \frac{b_0 z^N + b_1 z^{N-1} + \dots + b_M z^{N-M}}{z^N + a_1 z^{N-1} + \dots + a_N} \quad (3.4.13)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{X(z)}{z} = \frac{b_0 z^{N-1} + b_1 z^{N-2} + \dots + b_M z^{N-M}}{z^N + a_1 z^{N-1} + \dots + a_N} \quad (3.4.14)$$

3.4.3 The inverse z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

Distinct poles

Suppose that the poles p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N are all different .
Then we seek an expansion of the form

$$\frac{X(z)}{z} = \frac{A_1}{z-p_1} + \frac{A_2}{z-p_2} + \dots + \frac{A_N}{z-p_N} \quad (3.4.15)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{(z-p_k)X(z)}{z} = \frac{(z-p_k)A_1}{z-p_1} + \dots + A_k + \dots + \frac{(z-p_k)A_N}{z-p_N} \quad (3.4.20)$$

with $z = p_k$,

$$A_k = \frac{(z-p_k)X(z)}{z} \Big|_{z=p_k}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (3.4.21)$$

3.4.3 The inverse z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

Multiple- order poles

If $X(z)$ has of multiplicity l , that is, it contains in its denominator the factor $(z - p_k)^l$, then the expansion (3.4.15) is no longer true.

The partial factor expansion must contain the terms.

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

3.4.3 The inverse z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

Now, first $X(z)$ contains distinct poles.

$$X(z) = A_1 \frac{1}{1 - p_1 z^{-1}} + A_2 \frac{1}{1 - p_2 z^{-1}} + \dots + A_N \frac{1}{1 - p_N z^{-1}} \quad (3.4.27)$$

From $x(n) = Z^{-1}\{X(z)\}$, then

$$Z^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{1 - p_k z^{-1}}\right\} = \begin{cases} (p_k)^n u(n), & \text{if ROC: } |z| > |p_k| \text{ (causal signals)} \\ -(p_k)^{-n-1} u(-n-1), & \text{if ROC: } |z| < |p_k| \text{ (anticausal signals)} \end{cases} \quad (3.4.28)$$

With $|z| > p_{max}$ where $p_{max} = \max\{|p_1|\}$

Then

$$x(n) = (A_1 p_1^n + A_2 p_2^n + \dots + A_N p_N^n) u(n) \quad (3.4.29)$$

If all poles are **real**, (3.4.29) is a linear combination of real exponential signals.

3.4.3 The inverse z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

If all poles are distinct but some of them are **complex**,

$$x_k(n) = [A_k(p_k)^n + A_k^*(p_k^*)^n]u(n) \quad (3.4.30)$$

$$A_k = |A_k|e^{j\alpha_k} \quad (3.4.31)$$

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$$P_k = |A_k|e^{j\beta_k} \quad (3.4.32)$$

$$x_k(n) = |A_k|r_k^n \left[e^{j(\beta_k n + \alpha_k)} + e^{-j(\beta_k n + \alpha_k)} \right] u(n)$$

or

$$x_k(n) = 2|A_k|r_k^n \cos(\beta_k n + \alpha_k) u(n) \quad (3.4.33)$$

3.4.3 The inverse z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

$$z^{-1} \left\{ \frac{A_k}{1 - p_k z^{-1}} + \frac{A_k^*}{1 - p_k^* z^{-1}} \right\} = 2|A_k| r_k^n \cos(\beta_k n + \alpha_k) u(n) \quad (3.4.34)$$

if the ROC: is $|z| > |p| = r_k$

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$X(z)$ has **multiple poles**.

$$z^{-1} \left\{ \frac{pz^{-1}}{(1 - pz^{-1})^2} \right\} = np^n u(n) \quad (3.4.35)$$

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provided that the ROC is $|z| > |p|$

3.4.4 Decomposition of Rational z-Transforms

If $X(z)$ expressed as.

$$X(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^M (1 - z_k z^{-1})}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}} = b_0 \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (1 - z_k z^{-1})}{\prod_{k=1}^N (1 - p_k z^{-1})} \quad (3.4.40)$$

If $M \geq N$, $a_0 \equiv 1$, then

$$X(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{M-N} c_k z^{-k} + X_{pr}(z) \quad (3.4.41)$$

$$X_{pr}(z) = A_1 \frac{1}{1 - p_1 z^{-1}} + A_2 \frac{1}{1 - p_2 z^{-1}} + \dots + A_N \frac{1}{1 - p_N z^{-1}} \quad (3.4.42)$$

$$\frac{A_1}{1 - pz^{-1}} + \frac{A_1^*}{1 - p^k z^{-1}} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2}} \quad (3.4.43)$$

3.4.4 Decomposition of Rational z-Transforms

$$\text{Where } \begin{aligned} b_0 &= 2 \operatorname{Re}(A) & a_1 &= -2 \operatorname{Re}(p) \\ b_1 &= 2 \operatorname{Re}(A_p^*) & a_2 &= |p|^2 \end{aligned} \quad (3.4.44)$$

$$\Rightarrow X(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{M-N} c_k z^{-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{K_1} \frac{b_k}{1 + a_k z^{-1}} + \sum_{k=1}^{K_2} \frac{b_{0k} + b_{1k} z^{-1}}{1 + a_{1k} z^{-1} + a_{2k} z^{-2}} \quad (3.4.45)$$

$$\text{Where } k_1 + 2k_2 = N$$

Assuming for simplicity that $M = N$

$$X(z) = b_0 \prod_{k=1}^{K_1} \frac{1 + b_k z^{-1}}{1 + a_k z^{-1}} \prod_{k=1}^{K_2} \frac{1 + b_{1k} z^{-1} + b_{2k} z^{-2}}{1 + a_{1k} z^{-1} + a_{2k} z^{-2}} \quad (3.4.48)$$

$$\text{Where } \begin{aligned} b_{1k} &= -2 \operatorname{Re}(z_k), & a_{1k} &= -2 \operatorname{Re}(p_k) \\ b_{2k^*} &= |z_k|^2 & a_{2k} &= |p_k|^2 \end{aligned} \quad (3.4.47)$$

3.5 The one-side z-Transform

Definition and properties

The *one-sided* or *unilateral* z-transform of a signal $x(n]$ is defined

$$X^+(z) \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n} \quad (3.5.1)$$

notations $Z^+\{x(n)\}$ and $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{Z^+} X^+(z)$



3.5.1 Definition and properties

The one-side z-transform has the following ***characteristics***:

1. It does not contain information about the signal $x(n)$ for negative values of time.
2. It is unique only for causal signals, because only these signals are zero for $n < 0$
3. The ROC of $X^+(z)$, is always the exterior of a circle.



3.5.1 Definition and properties

Shifting Property

Case 1: Time delay if $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z^+} X^+(z)$

then

$$x(n-k) \xleftrightarrow{z^+} z^{-k} \left[X^+(z) + \sum_{n=1}^k x(-n)z^n \right] \quad k > 0 \quad (3.5.2)$$

In case $x(n)$ is causal, then

$$x(n-k) \xleftrightarrow{z^+} z^{-k} X^+(z) \quad (3.5.3)$$

$$Z^+ \{x(n-k)\} = [x(-k) + x(-k+1)z^{-1} + \dots + x(-1)z^{-k+1}] + z^{-k} X^+(z) \quad k > 0 \quad (3.5.4)$$

3.5.1 Definition and properties

Case 2: Time advance if $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z^+} X^+(z)$

then

$$x(n+k) \xleftrightarrow{z^+} z^k \left[X^+(z) - \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} x(n)z^{-n} \right] \quad k > 0 \quad (3.5.5)$$

Final value theorem g than cong . com

if $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z^+} X^+(z)$

then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x(n) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1)X^+(z) \quad (3.5.6)$$

The limit in (3.5.6) exists if the ROC of $(z-1)X^+(z)$ includes the unit circle.

3.5.2 Solution of Difference Equations

By *reducing the difference equation* relating the two time-domain signals to an equivalent algebraic equation relating their one-sided z-transforms.

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This equation can be easily solved *to obtain the transform of the desired signal.*

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The signal in the time domain is obtained by inverting the resulting z- transform.



dce 3.6 Analysis of Linear Time – invariant System in the z-Domain

Response of system with rational system functions

If $x(n)$ has a rational z-transform $X(z)$ of the form

$$X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{Q(z)} \quad (3.6.1)$$

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

we represent

If the system is initially relaxed, that is

$y(-1) = y(-2) = \dots = y(-N) = 0$, then

$$Y(z) = H(z)X(z) = \frac{B(z)N(z)}{A(z)Q(z)} \quad (3.6.2)$$



3.6.1 Response of system with rational system functions

If system contains simple poles p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N and z-transform of the input signal contains poles q_1, q_2, \dots, q_L . Where $p_k \neq q_m$, then

$$Y(z) = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{A_k}{1 - p_k z^{-1}} + \sum_{k=1}^L \frac{Q_k}{1 - q_k z^{-1}} \quad (3.6.3)$$

The inverse transform of $Y(z)$ yields

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=1}^N A_k (p_k)^n u(n) + \sum_{k=1}^L Q_k (q_k)^n u(n) \quad (3.6.4)$$

Scale factors $\{A_k\}$ and $\{Q_k\}$ are functions of both sets of poles $\{p_k\}$ and $\{q_k\}$.

The first part called ***the natural response of the system***. The second part is called ***forced response of the system***.

3.6.2 Response of poles – zero system with Nonzero Initial conditions

Suppose that $X(n)$ is applied to the pole-zero system at $n = 0$. ($x(n)$ is causal)

Since the input $x(n)$ is causal and output $y(n)$ for $n \geq 0$

$$Y^+(z) = - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k} \left[Y^+(z) + \sum_{n=1}^k y(-n) z^n \right] + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k} X^+(z) \quad (3.6.5)$$

Or

$$Y^+(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}} X(z) - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k} \sum_{n=1}^k y(-n) z^n}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}} \quad (3.6.6)$$

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



3.6.2 Response of poles – zero system with Nonzero Initial conditions

Where

$$N_0(z) = - \sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_k z^{-k} \sum_{n=1}^k y(-n) z^n \quad (3.6.7)$$

$$Y_{zs}(z) = H(z)X(z) \quad (3.6.8)$$

$$Y_{zi}^+(z) = \frac{N_0(z)}{A(z)} \quad (3.6.9)$$

Thus,
$$y(n) = y_{zs}(n) + y_{zi}(n) \quad (3.6.10)$$

Since $A(z)$ has poles as p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N , then

$$y_{zi}(n) = \sum_{k=1}^N D_k (p_k)^n u(n) \quad (3.6.11)$$

dce 3.6.2 Response of poles – zero system with Nonzero Initial conditions

This can be added to (3.6.4)

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=1}^N A'_k (p_k)^n u(n) + \sum_{k=1}^L Q_k (q_k)^n u(n) \quad (3.6.12)$$

Where

$$A'_k = A_k + D_k \quad (3.6.13)$$

The effect of the initial conditions is to alter the natural response of the system through modifications of the *scale factors* $\{A_k\}$

There are **no new poles** introduced by the nonzero initial conditions.



3.6.3 Transient and Steady – state Responses

The ***natural response*** of a causal system has the form

$$y_{nr}(n) = \sum_{k=1}^N A_k (p_k)^n u(n) \quad (3.6.14)$$

Where $\{p_k\}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, N$ are the poles of the system.
 $\{A_k\}$ are scale factors

The ***forced response*** of the system has the form

$$y_{fr}(n) = \sum_{k=1}^L Q_k (q_k)^n u(n) \quad (3.6.15)$$

Where $\{q_k\}$, $K = 1, 2, \dots, L$ are the poles
 $\{Q_k\}$ are scale factors



3.6.3 Transient and Steady – state Responses

when the *causal input signal* is a *sinusoid* the poles fall on the unit circle, consequently the forced response is also a *sinusoid*.

It is called the ***steady-state response*** of the system.



3.6.4 Causality and Stability

A linear time-invariant system is causal if and only if the ROC of the system function is the exterior of the circle of radius $r < \infty$, including the point $z = \infty$.

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*A necessary and sufficient conditions for a linear time-invariant system to be **BIBO stable** is*

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



3.6.4 Causality and Stability

$H(z)$ must contain the unit circle within its ROC .

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

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

when on the unit circle ($|z| = 1$)

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

A linear time-invariant system is BIBO stable if and only if the ROC of the system function includes the unit circle.

A causal linear time-invariant system is BIBO stable if and only if the poles of $H(z)$ are inside the unit circle.

3.6.5 Pole – zero cancellations

When a z-transform has a *pole* that is at the *same location as a zero*, ***the pole is canceled by the zero.***

Pole-zero cancellations can occur either *in the system function itself* or in the *product of the system function with the z-transform of the input signal.*



3.6.6 Multiple–Order poles and stability

The input is bounded if its z-transform contains pole $\{q_k\}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, L$

Which satisfy the condition $|q_k| \leq 1$ for all k .

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Thus, the *forced response* of the systems is also ***bounded***, even when the input signal contains one or more distinct poles on the unit circle.



3.6.8 Stability of Second–Order Systems

A causal two-pole system described by the second-order difference equation.

$$y(n) = -a_1y(n-1) - a_2y(n-2) + b_0x(n) \quad (3.6.26)$$

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{b_0}{1 + a_1z^{-1} + a_2z^{-2}} = \frac{b_0z^2}{z^2 + a_1z + a_2} \quad (3.6.27)$$

$$p_1, p_2 = -\frac{a_1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{a_1^2 - 4a_2}}{4} \quad (3.6.28)$$

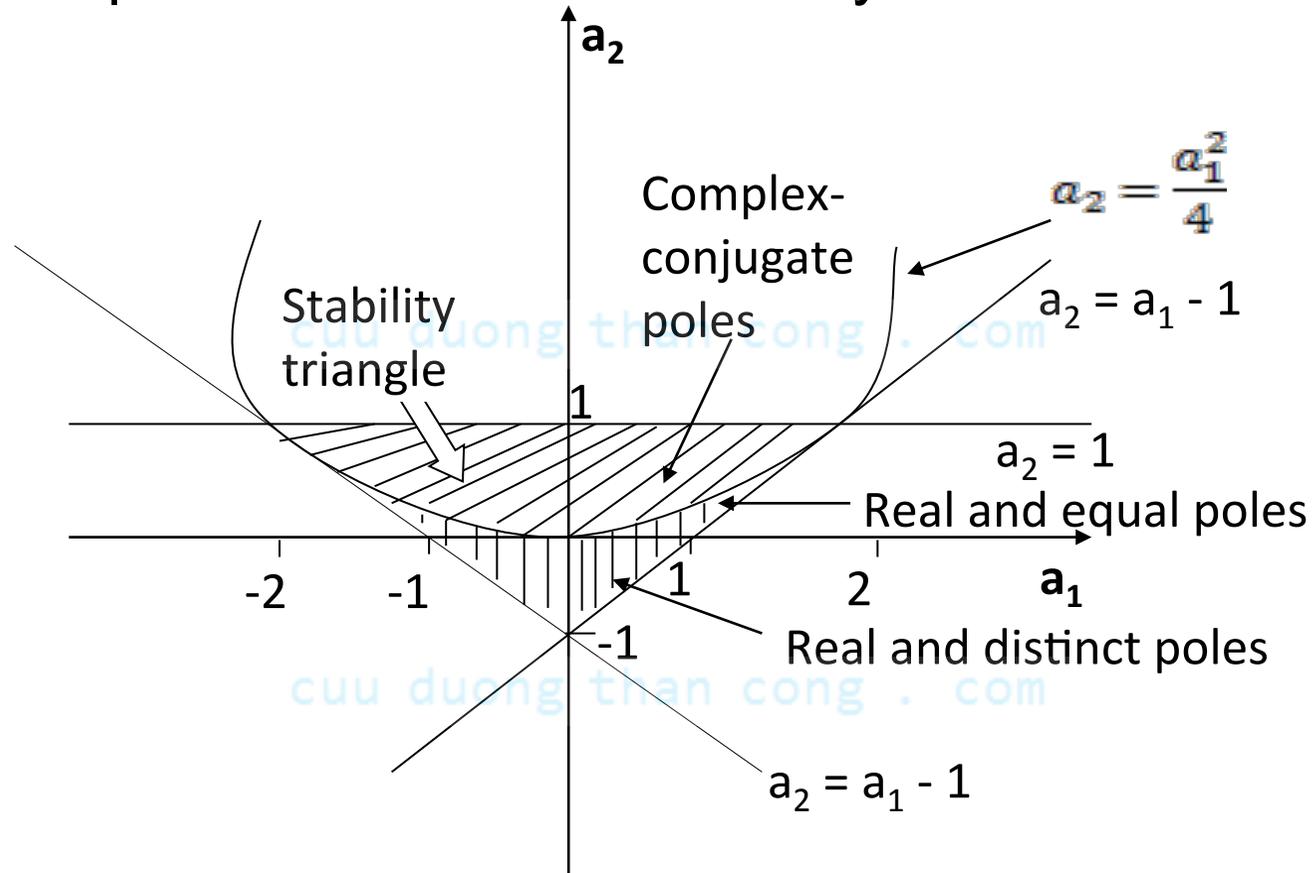
for stability

$$|a_2| = |p_1p_2| = |p_1| |p_2| < 1 \quad (3.6.31)$$

$$|a_1| < 1 + a_2 \quad (3.6.32)$$

3.6.8 Stability of Second-Order Systems

Figure 3.15 Region of stability(stability triangle) in the (a_1, a_2) coefficient plane for a second-order system.



Problems : 3.1, 3.2, 3.5, 3.11, 3.15, 3.43, 3.47.