

ELT2035 Signals & Systems

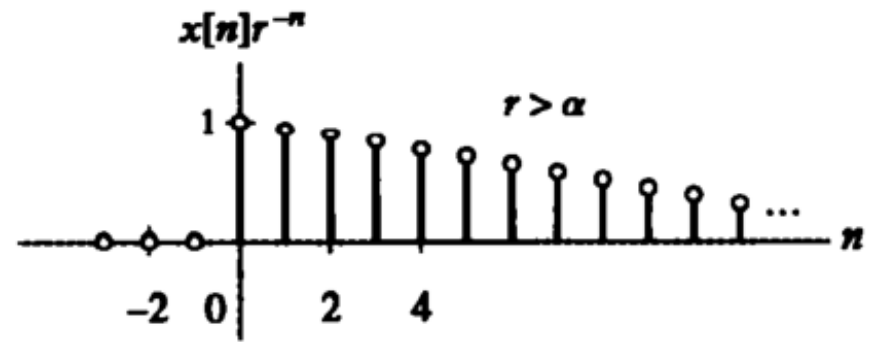
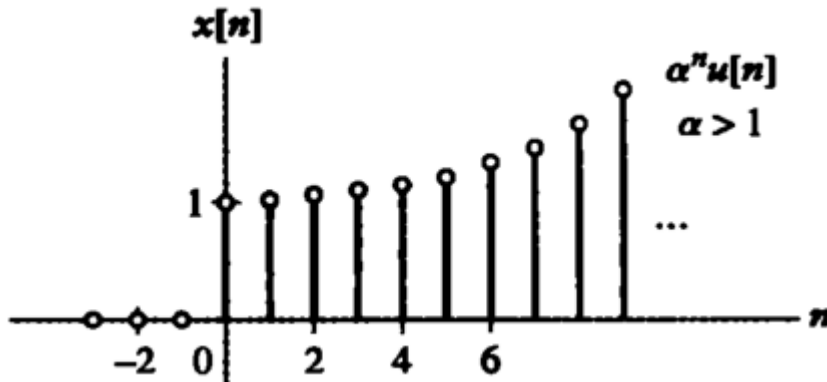
Lesson 12: The z-Transform

Hoang Gia Hung

Faculty of Electronics and Telecommunications
University of Engineering and Technology, VNU Hanoi

Introduction

- ❑ Fourier representations of DT signals and LTI systems are based on superpositions of complex sinusoids
 - The DTFT does not exist for signals that are not absolutely summable;
 - The DTFT cannot be **easily** used to analyze unstable or even marginally stable systems.
- ❑ **z-transform** provides a broader characterization of **discrete** time signals and LTI systems than Fourier methods
 - Based on superpositions of continuous time complex exponentials of the form $e^{(\sigma+j\Omega)k}$ rather than complex sinusoids $e^{j\Omega k}$.
 - The z-transform exists for signals that do not have a DTFT by selecting a proper value for σ .



The z-transform

□ Consider the Fourier transform of $f(t)e^{-\sigma t}$ (σ real)

➤ $\mathcal{F}\{f[k]e^{-\sigma k}\} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f[k]e^{-\sigma k} e^{-j\Omega k} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f[k] e^{-(\sigma+j\Omega)k} = F(e^{\sigma+j\Omega})$

➤ The inverse DTFT of $F(e^{\sigma+j\Omega})$ is $f[k]e^{-\sigma k} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} F(e^{\sigma+j\Omega})e^{j\Omega k} d\Omega$. Multiplying both sides with $e^{\sigma k}$ yields $f[k] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} F(e^{\sigma+j\Omega})e^{(\sigma+j\Omega)k} d\Omega$.

➤ Changing variable Ω to $z = e^{\sigma+j\Omega} = re^{j\Omega}$ with $r = e^{\sigma}$ yields bilateral z-transform pair, notice that $\ln z = \sigma + j\Omega$ and $\frac{1}{z} dz = jd\Omega$.

□ Bilateral z-transform pair

$$F(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f[k]z^{-k} \quad (1)$$

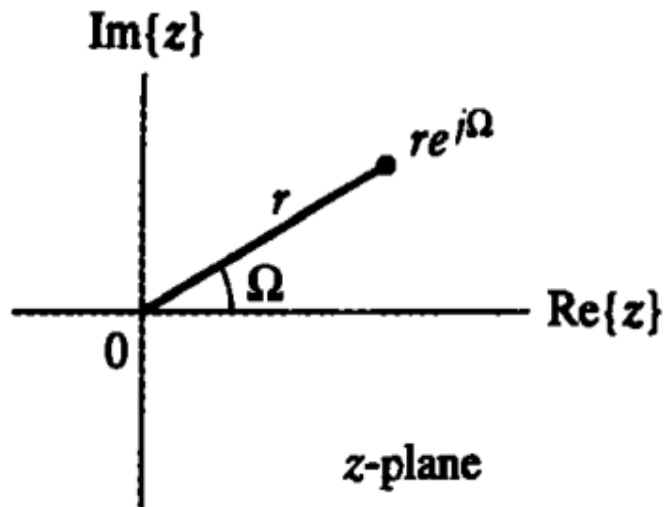
$$f[k] = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint F(z)z^{k-1} dz \quad (2)$$

➤ As Ω varies from $-\pi$ to π , z completes exactly one rotation in counterclockwise direction on a circle of radius $r \rightarrow$ the integral in Eq. (2) is a contour integral around a circle of radius r in counterclockwise direction.

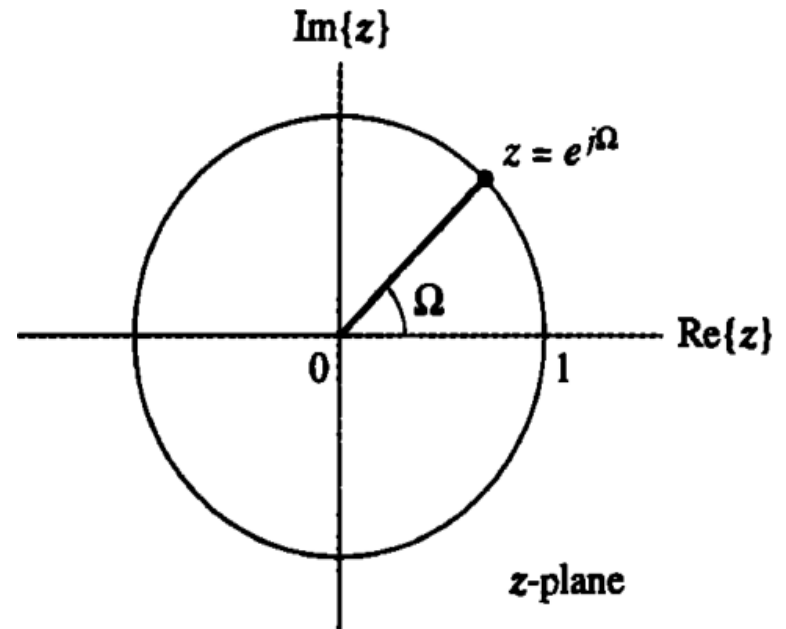
➤ In practice, we usually do not evaluate (2) directly but use a z-transform table.

➤ If we let $\sigma = 0$, $F(z) = F(e^{j\Omega}) \rightarrow$ the DTFT is a special case of the z-transform obtained by letting $z = e^{j\Omega}$ (i.e. z circumnavigates along the **unit circle** on the z-plane).

The z-plane illustration



$$z = e^{\sigma + j\Omega} = re^{j\Omega}$$



$$X(e^{j\Omega}) = X(z)|_{z=e^{j\Omega}}$$

The z-transform and the DTFT

EXAMPLE 7.1 THE Z-TRANSFORM AND THE DTFT Determine the z-transform of the signal

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

Use the z-transform to determine the DTFT of $x[n]$.

SOLUTION

- $X(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]z^{-k} = z + 2 - z^{-1} + z^{-2}$
- Substituting $z = e^{j\Omega}$ to $X(z)$ yields $X(e^{j\Omega}) = e^{j\Omega} + 2 - e^{-j\Omega} + e^{-2j\Omega}$

Region of convergence (ROC)

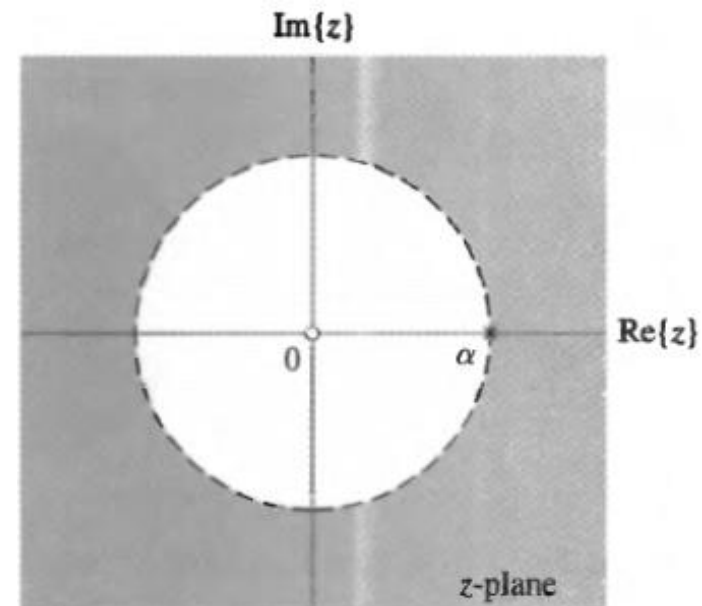
- The ROC for $F(z)$ is a set of values of z (a region in the z -plane) for which the infinite sum in Eq. (1) converges.
 - A necessary condition for convergence is absolute summability of $x[n]z^n$. Since $|x[n]z^{-n}| = |x[n]r^{-n}|$, we must have $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]r^{-n}| < \infty$.
 - For bilateral z -transform, it is possible that two different signals have the same $F(z)$ but with different ROC. In other words, there is no 1-to-1 correspondence between $F(z)$ and $f[k]$ unless the ROC is specified.
 - **Example:** Find the z -transform and ROC for $x[k] = \alpha^k u[k]$
 - **Solution:**

$$X(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha^k u[k] z^{-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\alpha}{z}\right)^k$$

- For $|z| > |\alpha|$, the sum converges to

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

- For $|z| \leq |\alpha|$, the sum does not converge. Hence, the ROC of $X(z)$ is the shaded region outside the circle of radius $|\alpha|$, centred at the origin in the z -plane.



Poles and zeros

- Like in the CT case, it is useful to express $X(z) = \frac{\tilde{b} \prod_{k=1}^M (1 - c_k z^{-1})}{\prod_{k=1}^M (1 - d_k z^{-1})}$
 - The roots of the numerator polynomial, c_k , are termed the **zeros** of $X(z)$.
 - The roots of the denominator polynomial, d_k , are termed the **poles** of $X(z)$.

□ Example:

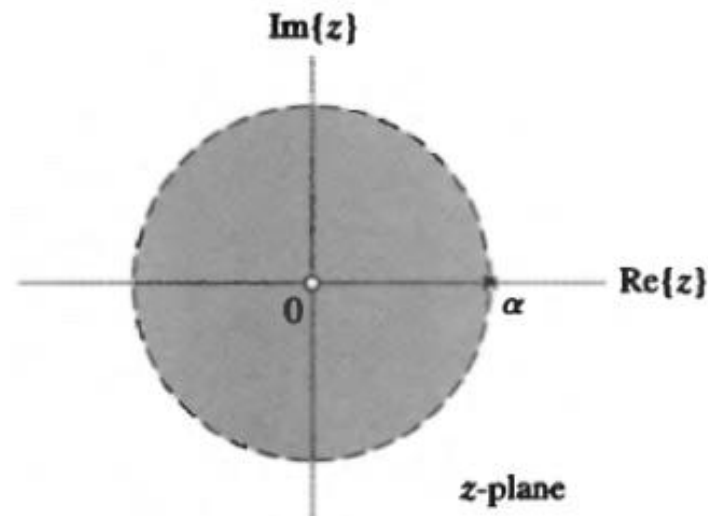
Find the z-transform of the signal $x[k] = -\alpha^k u[-k - 1]$. Depict the ROC and locations of poles, zeros of $X(z)$ in the z-plane.

SOLUTION:

$$\begin{aligned}
 X(z) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} -\alpha^k u[-k - 1] z^{-k} = - \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} \left(\frac{\alpha}{z}\right)^k \\
 &= - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{\alpha}\right)^n = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{\alpha}\right)^n
 \end{aligned}$$

For $|z| > |\alpha|$, the sum does not converge. For $|z| < |\alpha|$, the sum converges to $X(z) = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - z} = \frac{z}{z - \alpha}$. The ROC of $X(z)$ is the shaded region inside the circle of radius $|\alpha|$, centered at the origin in the z-plane.

The signal has one zero at $z = 0$ and one pole at $z = \alpha$.



Properties of the ROC

- ❑ The ROC cannot contain any pole.
 - Suppose d is a pole of $X(z) \rightarrow X(d) = \pm\infty \rightarrow X(z)$ does not converge at $d \rightarrow d$ cannot lie in the ROC.
- ❑ The ROC for a finite-duration signal includes the entire z -plane, except possibly $z = 0$ or $|z| = \infty$ (or both).
- ❑ Suppose that $x[n]$ satisfies $|x[n]| \leq A_-(r_-)^n, n < 0; |x[n]| \leq A_+(r_+)^n, n \geq 0$ (i.e. $x[n]$ grows no faster than $(r_+)^n$ and $(r_-)^n$ for positive and negative n , respectively)
 - If $r_+ < |z| < r_-$ then $X(z)$ converges. If $r_+ > r_-$, $X(z)$ does not converge.
- ❑ For $x[n]$ satisfies **exponentially bounded** conditions above
 - If $x[n]$ is a right-sided signal (i.e. $x[n] = 0$ for $n < 0$), then the ROC of $x[n]$ is of the form $|z| > r_+$.
 - If $x[n]$ is a left-sided signal (i.e. $x[n] = 0$ for $n \geq 0$), then the ROC of $x[n]$ is of the form $|z| < r_-$.
 - If $x[n]$ is an exponential two-sided signal (i.e. $x[n]$ infinitely extends in both directions), then the ROC of $x[n]$ is of the form $r_+ < |z| < r_-$.

Example

- Determine the z-transform and ROC for:

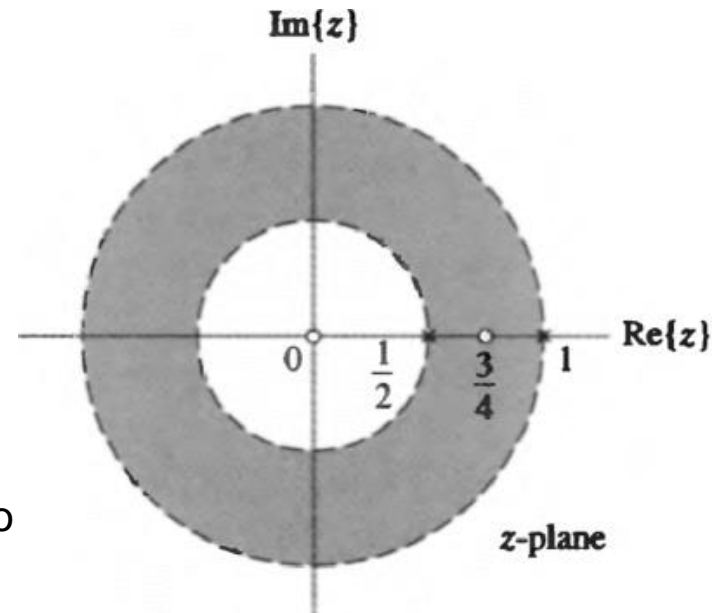
$$x[n] = -u[-n - 1] + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n].$$

- **Solution:**

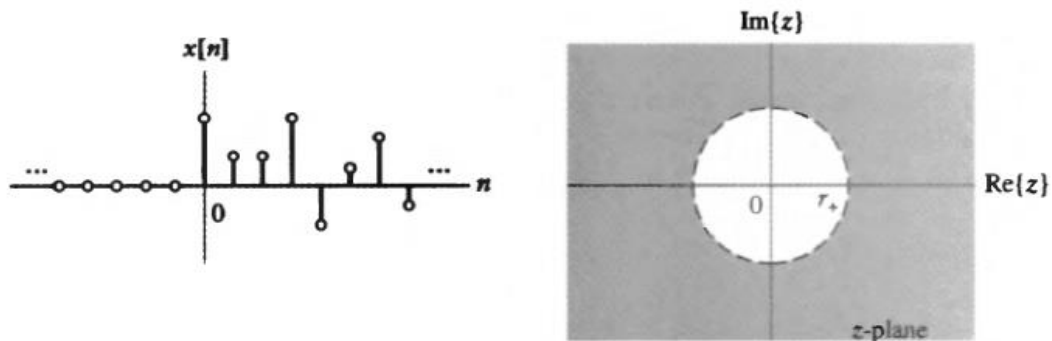
$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n]z^{-n} - u[-n - 1]z^{-n} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n z^{-n} - \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{z}\right)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2z}\right)^n + 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k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

- Both sums must converge in order for $X(z)$ to converge $\rightarrow |z| > 1/2$ & $|z| < 1$.

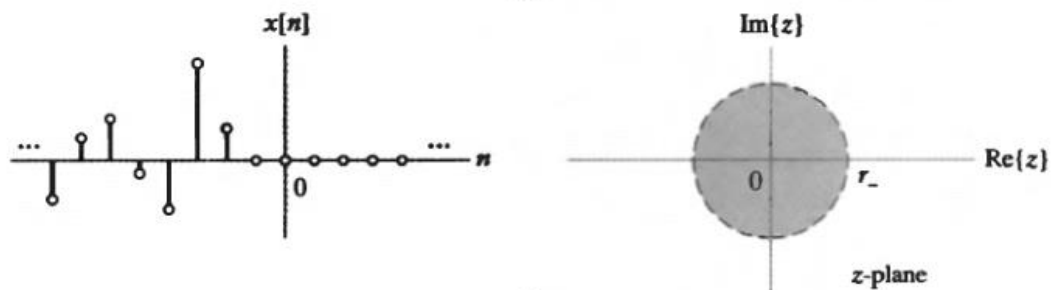
- For $1/2 < |z| < 1$ $X(z) = \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2z}} + 1 - \frac{1}{1-z} = \frac{z(2z-\frac{3}{2})}{(z-\frac{1}{2})(z-1)}$.



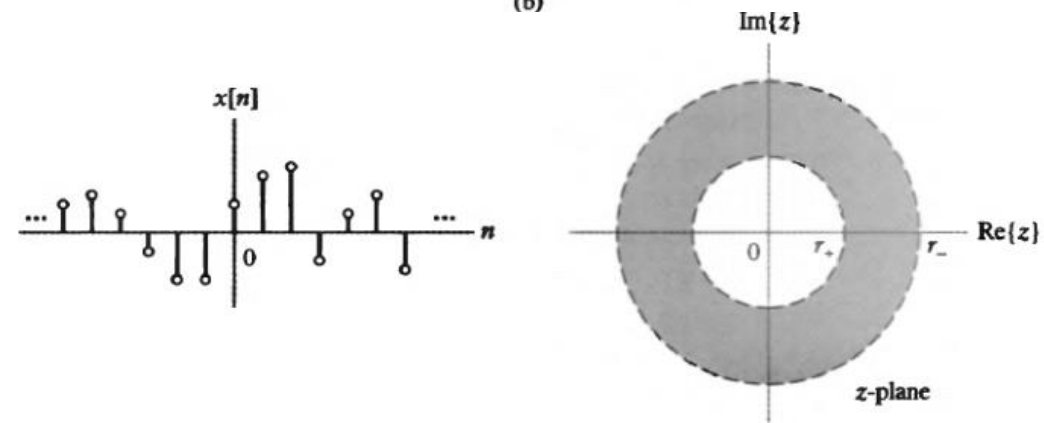
ROC for exponentially bounded signals



(a)



(b)



Properties of the z-transform

□ Linearity:

$$ax[n] + by[n] \xleftrightarrow{z} aX(z) + bY(z), \text{ with ROC at least } R_x \cap R_y.$$

□ Time reversal:

$$x[-n] \xleftrightarrow{z} X\left(\frac{1}{z}\right), \text{ with ROC } \frac{1}{R_x}.$$

□ Time shifting:

$$x[n - n_0] \xleftrightarrow{z} z^{-n_0}X(z), \text{ with ROC } R_x, \text{ except possibly } z = 0 \text{ or } |z| = \infty.$$

□ Multiplication by an exponential sequence:

$$\alpha^n x[n] \xleftrightarrow{z} X\left(\frac{z}{\alpha}\right), \text{ with ROC } |\alpha|R_x.$$

- The notation $|\alpha|R_x$ means that the ROC boundaries are multiplied by $|\alpha|$: if R_x is $a < |z| < b$, then the new ROC is $|\alpha|a < |z| < |\alpha|b$.

Properties of the z-transform (cont.)

❑ Convolution:

$$x[n] * y[n] \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z)Y(z), \quad \text{with ROC at least } R_x \cap R_y.$$

❑ Differentiation in the z-domain:

$$nx[n] \xleftrightarrow{z} -z \frac{d}{dz} X(z), \quad \text{with ROC } R_x.$$

❑ Example: Find the z-transform of $x[n] = a^n \cos \Omega_0 n u[n]$ with $a \in R^+$

SOLUTION

➤ We have $x[n] = \frac{1}{2} e^{j\Omega_0 n} y[n] + \frac{1}{2} e^{-j\Omega_0 n} y[n]$, where $y[n] = a^n u[n] \xleftrightarrow{z} \frac{z}{z-a}$ with ROC $|z| > a$.

➤ Applying the property of multiplication by an exponential sequence
$$X(z) = \frac{1}{2} Y(e^{-j\Omega_0} z) + \frac{1}{2} Y(e^{j\Omega_0} z) = \frac{1-a \cos \Omega_0 z^{-1}}{1-2a \cos \Omega_0 z^{-1} + a^2 z^{-2}}, \quad \text{ROC } |z| > a.$$

Some common z-transform pairs

Signal	Transform	ROC
1. $\delta[n]$	1	All z
2. $u[n]$	$\frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}$	$ z > 1$
3. $-u[-n-1]$	$\frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}$	$ z < 1$
4. $\delta[n-m]$	z^{-m}	All z except 0 (if $m > 0$) or ∞ (if $m < 0$)
5. $\alpha^n u[n]$	$\frac{1}{1-\alpha z^{-1}}$	$ z > \alpha $
6. $-\alpha^n u[-n-1]$	$\frac{1}{1-\alpha z^{-1}}$	$ z < \alpha $

Some common z-transform pairs (cont.)

Signal	Transform	ROC
7. $n\alpha^n u[n]$	$\frac{\alpha z^{-1}}{(1-\alpha z^{-1})^2}$	$ z > \alpha $
8. $-n\alpha^n u[-n-1]$	$\frac{\alpha z^{-1}}{(1-\alpha z^{-1})^2}$	$ z < \alpha $
9. $[\cos \omega_0 n] u[n]$	$\frac{1 - [\cos \omega_0] z^{-1}}{1 - [2 \cos \omega_0] z^{-1} + z^{-2}}$	$ z > 1$
10. $[\sin \omega_0 n] u[n]$	$\frac{[\sin \omega_0] z^{-1}}{1 - [2 \cos \omega_0] z^{-1} + z^{-2}}$	$ z > 1$
11. $[r^n \cos \omega_0 n] u[n]$	$\frac{1 - [r \cos \omega_0] z^{-1}}{1 - [2r \cos \omega_0] z^{-1} + r^2 z^{-2}}$	$ z > r$
12. $[r^n \sin \omega_0 n] u[n]$	$\frac{[r \sin \omega_0] z^{-1}}{1 - [2r \cos \omega_0] z^{-1} + r^2 z^{-2}}$	$ z > r$

Inversion of the z-transform

Partial fraction expansion:

- Bring $X(z)$ of the form $\frac{b_M z^{-M} + b_{M-1} z^{-(M-1)} + \dots + b_1 z^{-1} + b_0}{a_0 \prod_{k=1}^N (1 - d_k z^{-1})}$ to $X(s) = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{A_k}{1 - d_k z^{-1}}$ if all the poles d_k are distinct.
- If a pole d_i is repeated r times, then there are r terms in the partial fraction expansion associated with that pole: $\frac{A_{i1}}{1 - d_k z^{-1}}, \frac{A_{i2}}{(1 - d_k z^{-1})^2}, \dots, \frac{A_{ir}}{(1 - d_k z^{-1})^r}$.
- Depending on the ROC, the inverse z-transform associated with each term is then determined by using the appropriate transform pair:

$$A_k (d_k)^n u[n] \stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} \frac{A_k}{1 - d_k z^{-1}} \text{ with ROC } |z| > d_k; \text{ or}$$

$$-A_k (d_k)^n u[-n - 1] \stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} \frac{A_k}{1 - d_k z^{-1}} \text{ with ROC } |z| < d_k; \text{ or}$$

$$A \frac{(n+1)\dots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!} (d_k)^n u[n] \stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} \frac{A_k}{(1 - d_k z^{-1})^m} \text{ with ROC } |z| > d_k; \text{ or}$$

$$-A \frac{(n+1)\dots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!} (d_k)^n u[-n - 1] \stackrel{z}{\leftrightarrow} \frac{A_k}{(1 - d_k z^{-1})^m} \text{ with ROC } |z| < d_k.$$

- The linearity property indicates that the ROC of $X(z)$ is the intersection of the ROCs associated with the individual terms in the partial fraction expansion \rightarrow we must infer the ROC of each term from the ROC of $X(z)$ to obtain the correct inverse transform.

Example

EXAMPLE 7.9 INVERSION BY PARTIAL-FRACTION EXPANSION Find the inverse z -transform of

$$X(z) = \frac{1 - z^{-1} + z^{-2}}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}\right)(1 - 2z^{-1})(1 - z^{-1})}, \quad \text{with ROC } 1 < |z| < 2.$$

Solution: We use a partial-fraction expansion to write

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

Now we find the inverse z -transform of each term, using the relationship between the locations of the poles and the ROC of $X(z)$, each of which is depicted in Fig. 7.12. The figure shows that the ROC has a radius greater than the pole at $z = \frac{1}{2}$, so this term has the right-sided inverse transform

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n] \xleftrightarrow{z} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}}.$$

The ROC also has a radius less than the pole at $z = 2$, so this term has the left-sided inverse transform

$$-2(2)^n u[-n - 1] \xleftrightarrow{z} \frac{2}{1 - 2z^{-1}}.$$

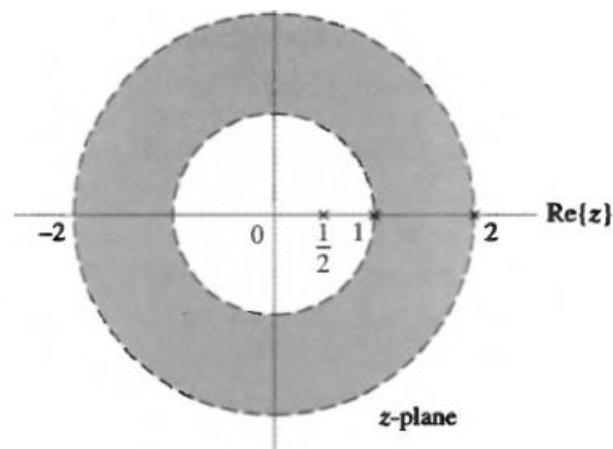


FIGURE 7.12 Locations of poles and ROC for Example 7.9.

Example (cont.)

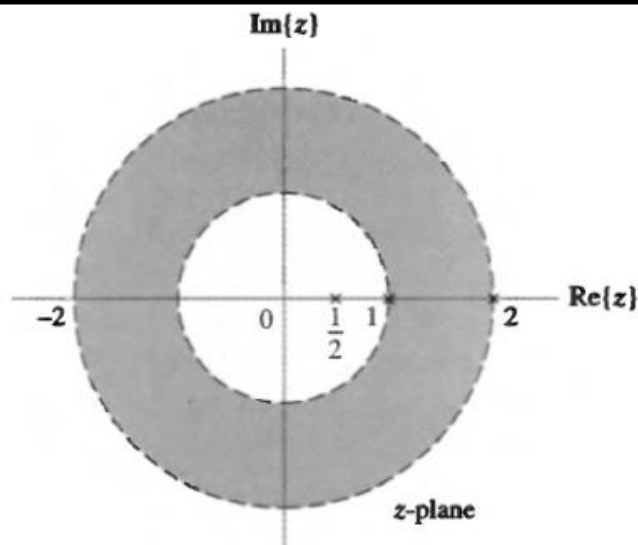


FIGURE 7.12 Locations of poles and ROC for Example 7.9.

Finally, the ROC has a radius greater than the pole at $z = 1$, so this term has the right-sided inverse z -transform

$$-2u[n] \xleftrightarrow{z} -\frac{2}{1 - z^{-1}}.$$

Combining the individual terms gives

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

■

Inversion of the z-transform (cont.)

❑ Power series expansion:

- Bring $X(z)$ to the form of a power series in z^{-1} or z , then the values of $x[n]$ are the coefficients associated with z^n .
- This inversion method is limited to one-sided signals only, i.e. signals with ROCs of the form $|z| > a$ or $|z| < a$. If the ROC is $|z| > a \rightarrow$ express $X(z)$ as a power series in $z^{-1} \rightarrow$ right-sided $x[n]$, and vice versa.

❑ **Example:** Find the inverse z-transform of $X(z) = e^{z^2}$, with ROC all z except $|z| = \infty$.

❑ **Solution:**

- Using the power series representation for e^a , viz. $e^a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^k}{k!}$, we have

$$X(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(z^2)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2k}}{k!}$$

- On the other hand, as $X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]z^{-n}$ by definition, we conclude that

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 0, & n < 0 \text{ or } n \text{ odd} \\ \frac{1}{\left(\frac{-n}{2}\right)!}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

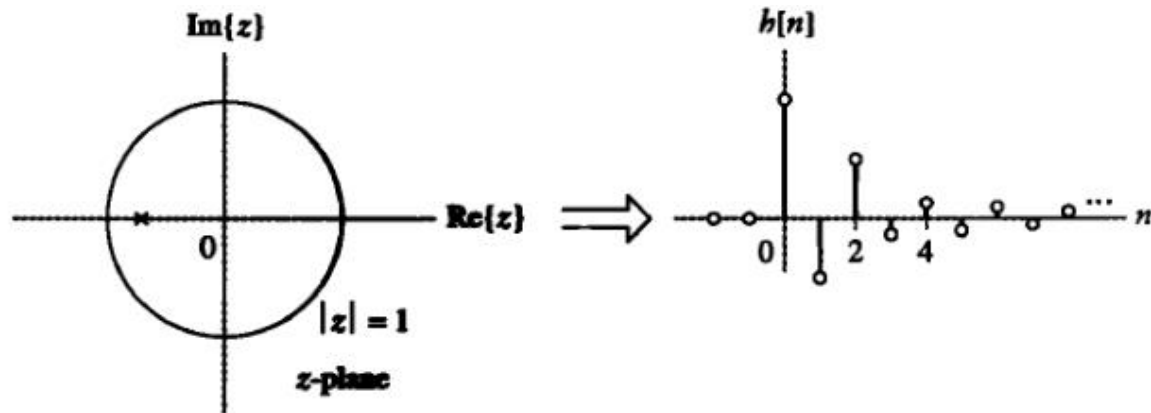
The transfer function

- ❑ Derived in a similar manner to that of CT LTI systems.
 - $H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)}$ and is called the **transfer function** of the DT LTI system.
 - $h[n] = \mathcal{Z}^{-1}[H(z)] = \mathcal{Z}^{-1}\left[\frac{Y(z)}{X(z)}\right]$, $y[n] = \mathcal{Z}^{-1}[H(z)X(z)]$
 - In order to uniquely determine $h[n]$, we must know the ROC. If the ROC is not known, other system characteristics such as stability or causality must be known.
- ❑ The transfer function can be obtained directly from the difference equation that describes the system.
 - Assume that the system is described by $\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$. Taking z-transform of both sides yields $\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k} Y(z) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k} X(z)$.
 - Rational transfer function: $H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k}}$
 - The poles and zeros of a rational transfer function are found by factoring the numerator and denominator $H(z) = \frac{\tilde{b} \prod_{k=1}^M (1 - c_k z^{-1})}{\prod_{k=1}^M (1 - d_k z^{-1})}$.

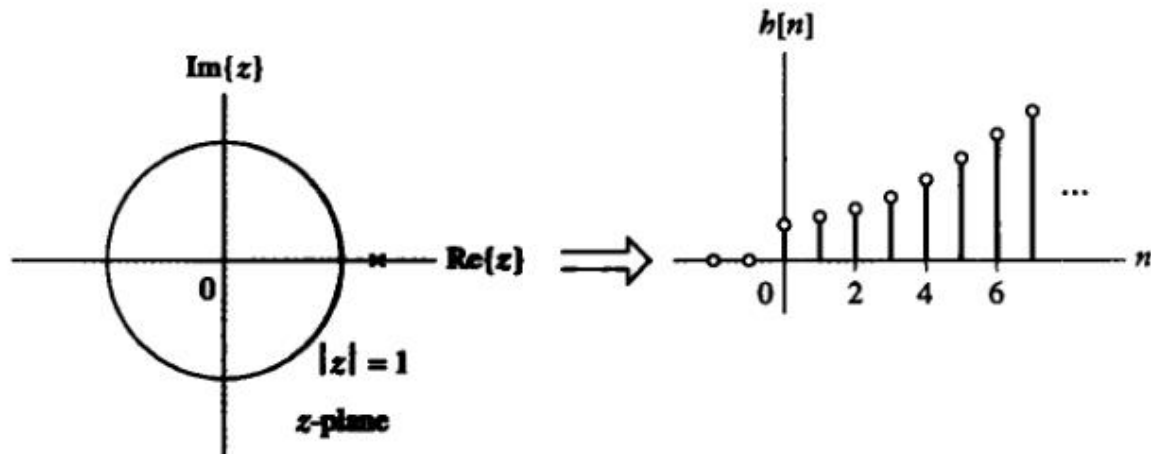
Causality and stability

- ❑ Causality: a DT LTI system is causal if $h[n] = 0 \forall n < 0 \rightarrow$ the impulse response of a causal DT LTI system is determined from its transfer function by using right-sided inverse transform.
- ❑ Stability: a DT LTI system is causal if its impulse response is summable \rightarrow the DTFT of the impulse response exists \rightarrow the ROC must include the unit circle in the z-plane.
- ❑ If a system is causal:
 - $\frac{A_k}{1-d_k z^{-1}} \xleftrightarrow{z} A_k (d_k)^n u[n] \rightarrow$ the system is stable if **all** the poles are **inside** the unit circle in the z-plane. If there's at least one pole outside the unit circle \rightarrow unstable.
- ❑ If the system is anti-causal:
 - $h[n]$ is the left-sided inverse z-transform of $H(z)$.
 - $\frac{A_k}{1-d_k z^{-1}} \xleftrightarrow{z} -A_k (d_k)^n u[-n - 1] \rightarrow$ the system is stable if **all** the poles are **outside** the unit circle in the z-plane. If there's at least one pole inside the unit circle \rightarrow unstable.

Pole locations and impulse response for causal systems



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 7.14 The relationship between the location of a pole and the impulse response characteristics for a causal system. (a) A pole inside the unit circle contributes an exponentially decaying term to the impulse response. (b) A pole outside the unit circle contributes an exponentially increasing term to the impulse response.

Pole locations and impulse response for stable systems

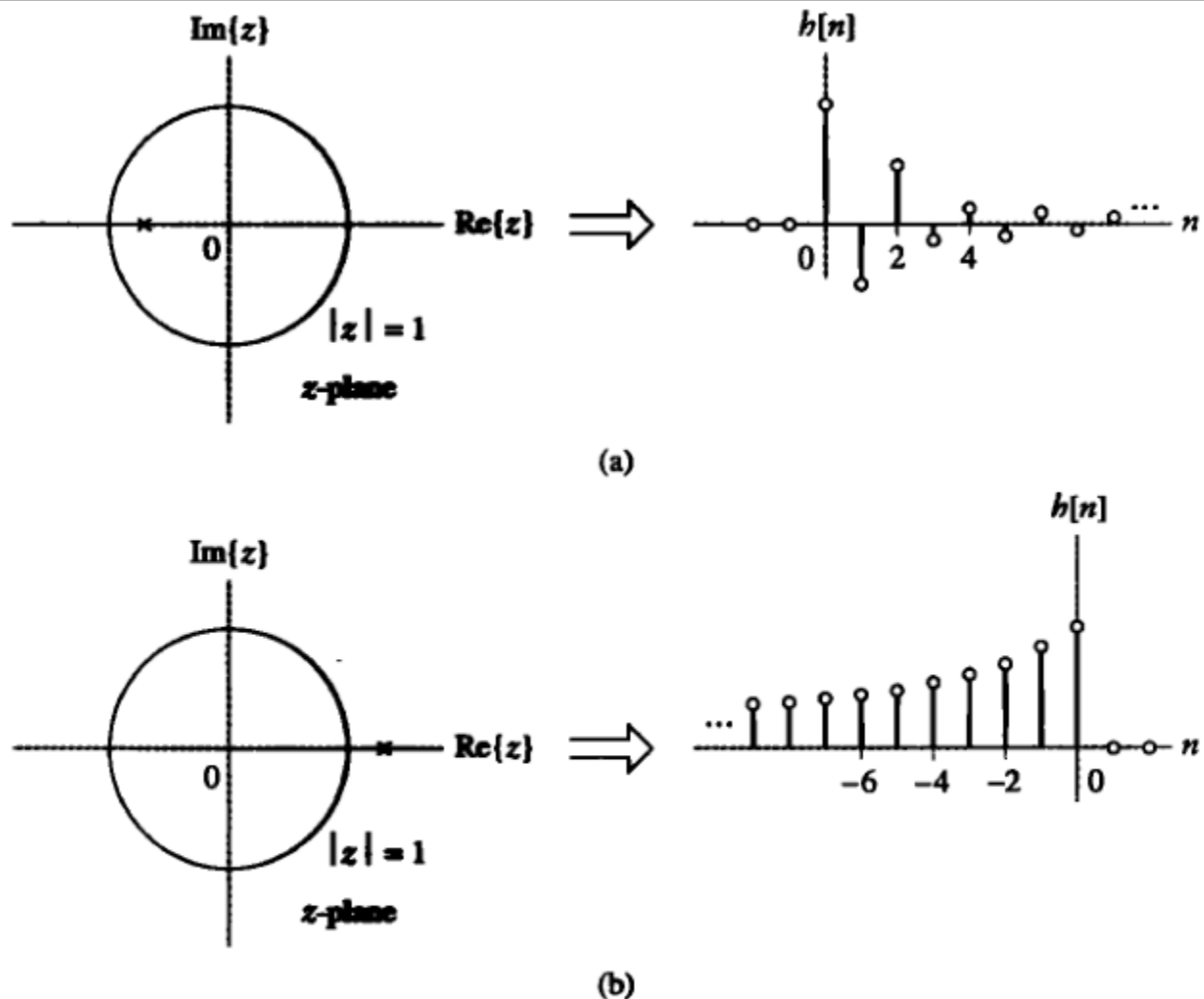
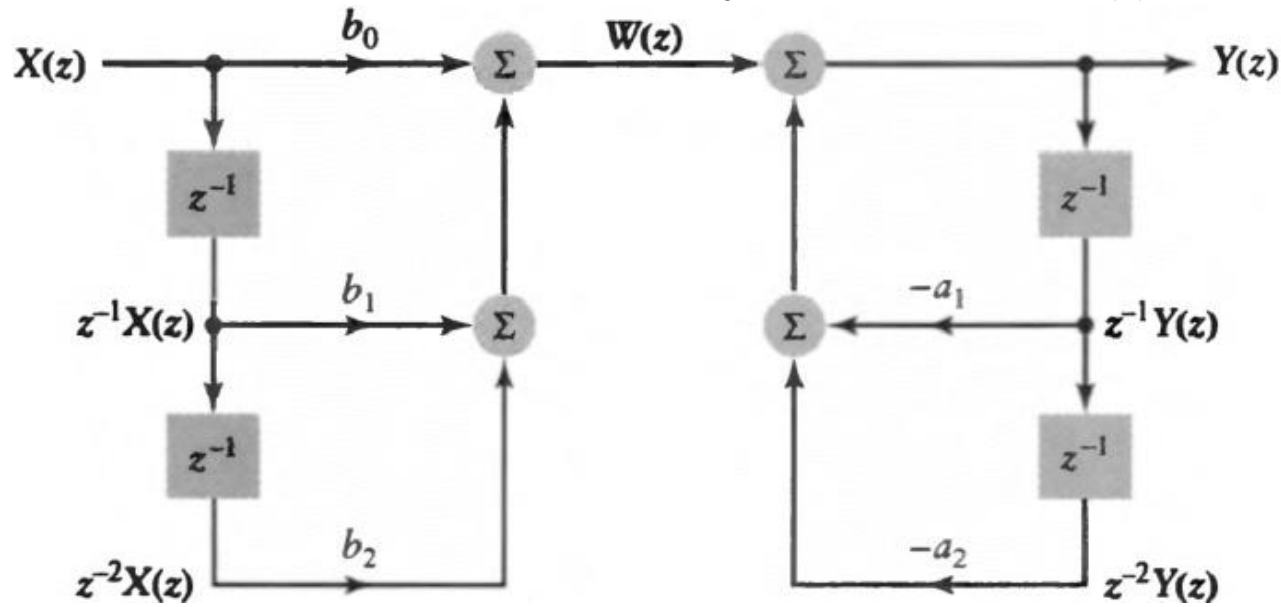


FIGURE 7.15 The relationship between the location of a pole and the impulse response characteristics for a stable system. (a) A pole inside the unit circle contributes a right-sided term to the impulse response. (b) A pole outside the unit circle contributes a left-sided term to the impulse response.

Block diagram representations of DT-LTI systems

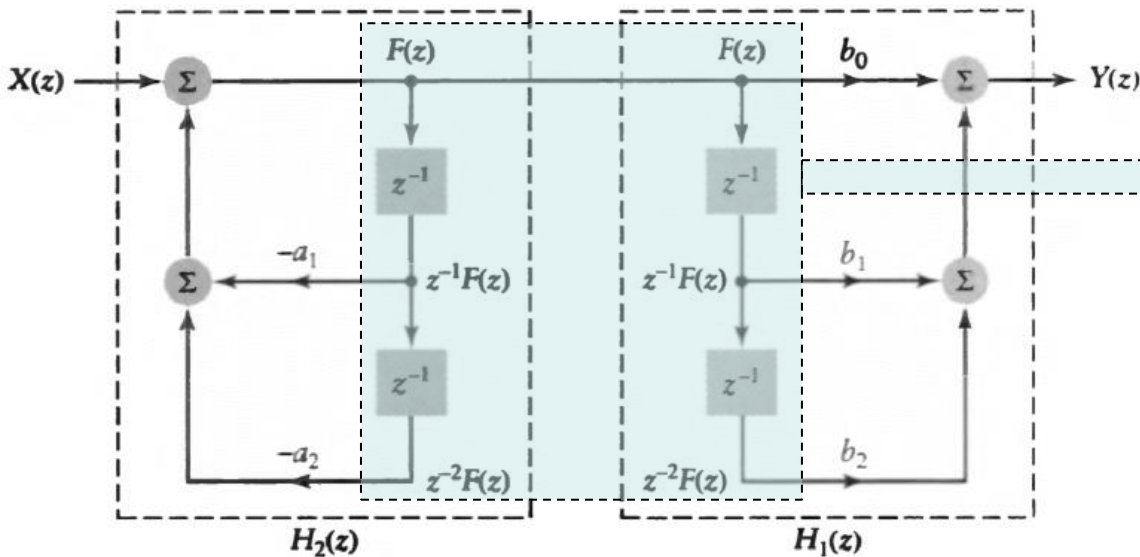
- A block diagram describes how the system's internal **elementary operations** are ordered.
 - The block diagram description of a system is **NOT** unique.
 - **Example:** $y[n] + a_1y[n - 1] + a_2y[n - 2] = b_0x[n] + b_1x[n - 1] + b_2x[n - 2]$
 - **Solution:** $(1 + a_1z^{-1} + a_2z^{-2})Y(z) = (b_0 + b_1z^{-1} + b_2z^{-2})X(z)$



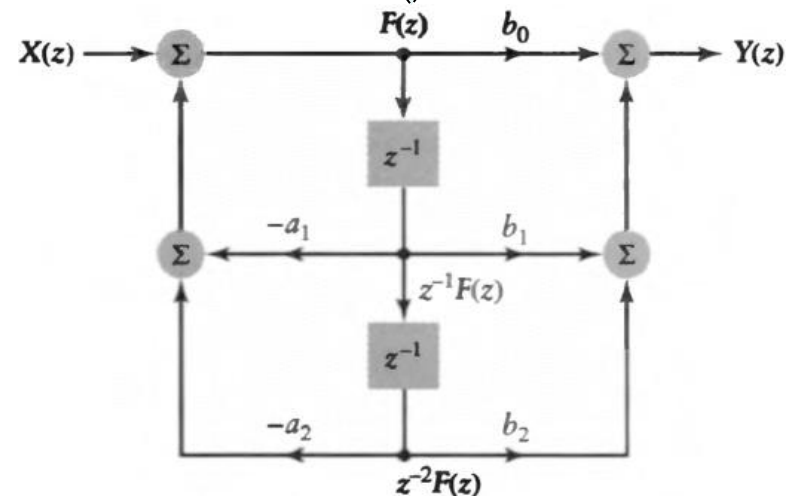
✓ z^{-1} represents the shift operator.

The direct form II

- Derived by writing the difference equation as two coupled difference equations involving an intermediate signal $f[n]$.
 - Let $H_1(z) = b_0 + b_1z^{-1} + b_2z^{-2}$, $H_2(z) = \frac{1}{1+a_1z^{-1}+a_2z^{-2}}$, and $F(z) = H_2(z)X(z)$, it's obvious that $Y(z) = H_1(z)F(z)$.



- The z^{-1} blocks in $H_1(z)$ and $H_2(z)$ generate identical quantities \rightarrow combined to get



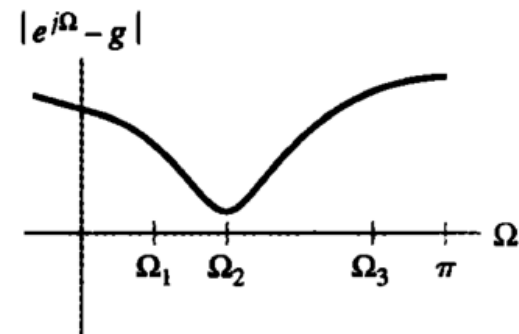
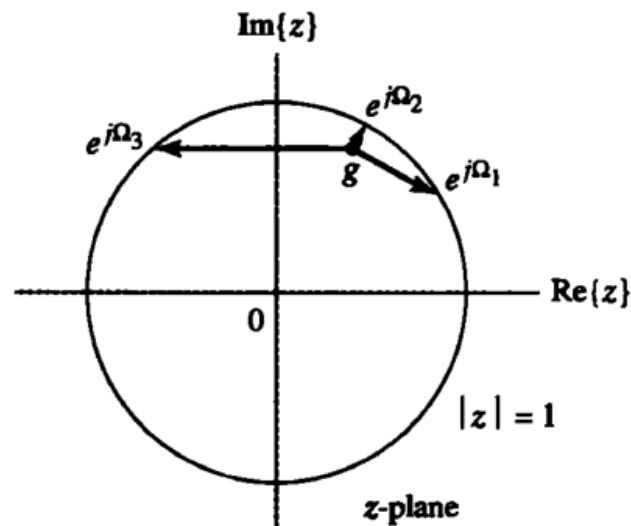
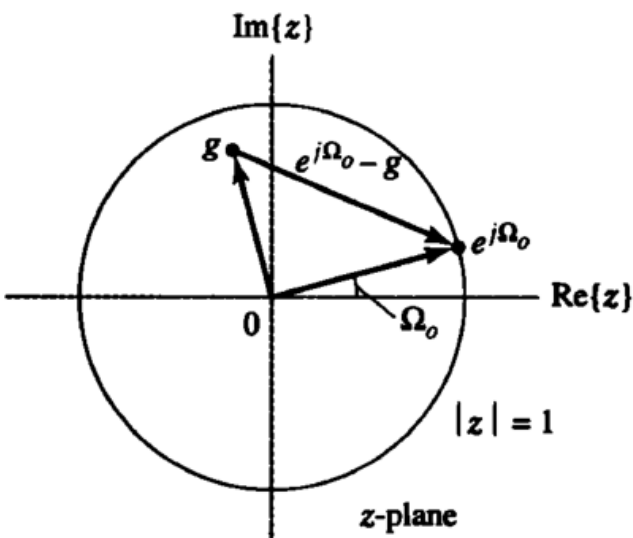
Determining the frequency response from poles and zeros

□ Let $H(z) = \frac{\tilde{b}z^{-p} \prod_{k=1}^{M-p}(1-c_kz^{-1})}{z^{-l} \prod_{k=1}^{N-l}(1-d_kz^{-1})} \rightarrow H(e^{j\Omega}) = \frac{\tilde{b}e^{-jp\Omega} \prod_{k=1}^{M-p}(1-c_ke^{-j\Omega})}{e^{-jl\Omega} \prod_{k=1}^{N-l}(1-d_ke^{-j\Omega})}$.

- The magnitude of $H(e^{j\Omega})$ at some fixed value of Ω , say, Ω_0 , is defined by:

$$|H(e^{j\Omega_0})| = \frac{|\tilde{b}| \prod_{k=1}^{M-p} |e^{j\Omega_0} - c_k|}{\prod_{k=1}^{N-l} |e^{j\Omega_0} - d_k|}$$

- In the z-plane, each of the complex number $e^{j\Omega_0}$, c_k , d_k is represented by a vector from the origin to the corresponding point $\rightarrow e^{j\Omega_0} - g$ is a vector from the point g to the point $e^{j\Omega_0}$ (g can be either a pole or zero).
- The frequency response is evaluated by the contribution of all vectors $e^{j\Omega_0} - g$.

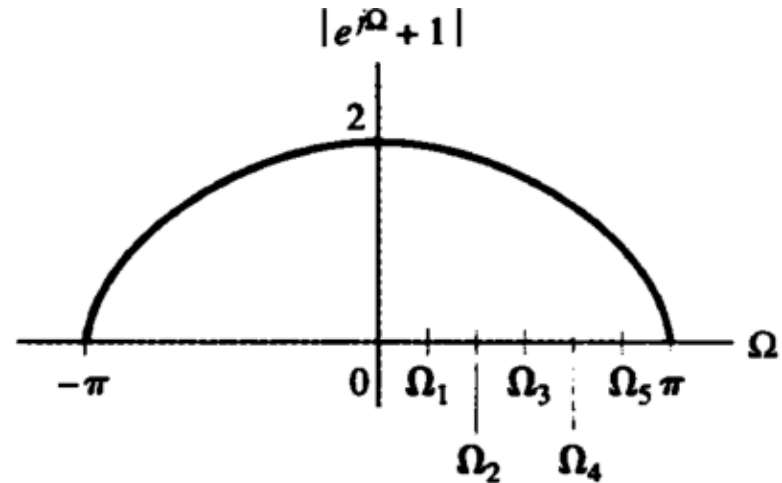
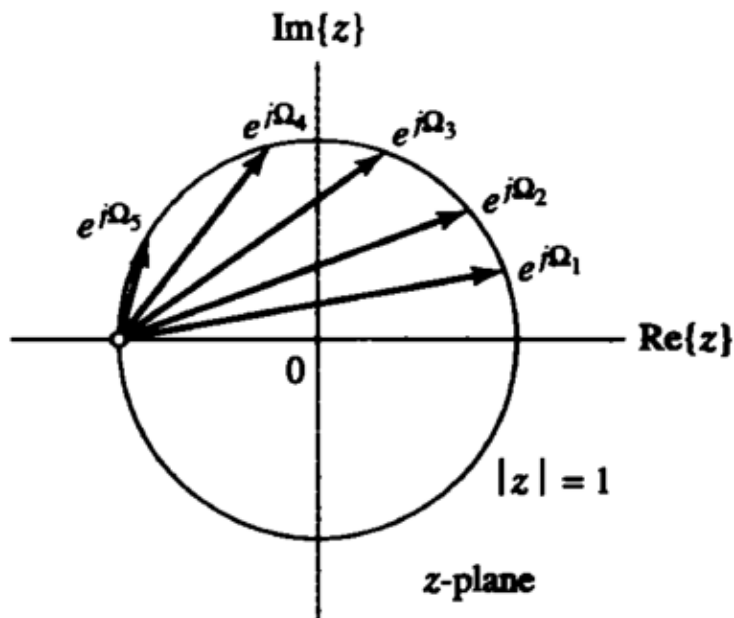


Example

□ Sketch the magnitude response for $H(z) = \frac{1+z^{-1}}{(1-0.9e^{j\frac{\pi}{4}}z^{-1})(1-0.9e^{-j\frac{\pi}{4}}z^{-1})}$.

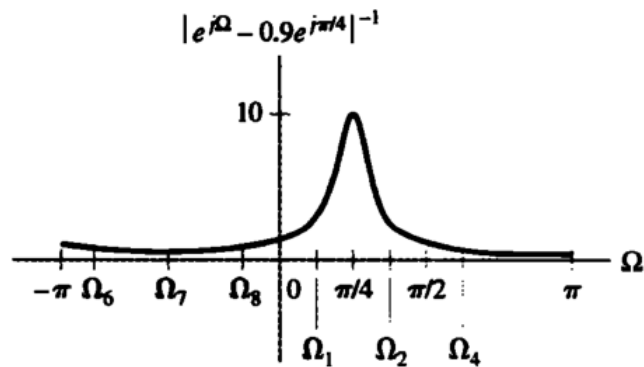
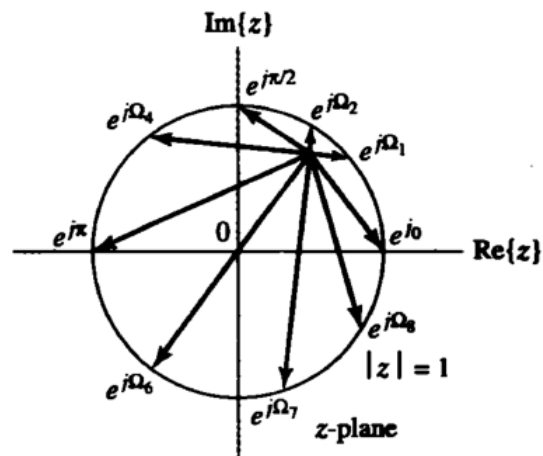
□ **Solution:**

- One zero at $z = -1$ and two poles at $z = 0.9e^{j\frac{\pi}{4}}$ and $z = 0.9e^{-j\frac{\pi}{4}}$.
- The contribution of the zero to the magnitude response can be evaluated as follows

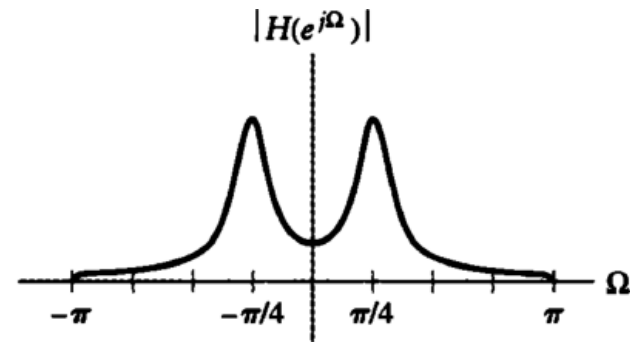
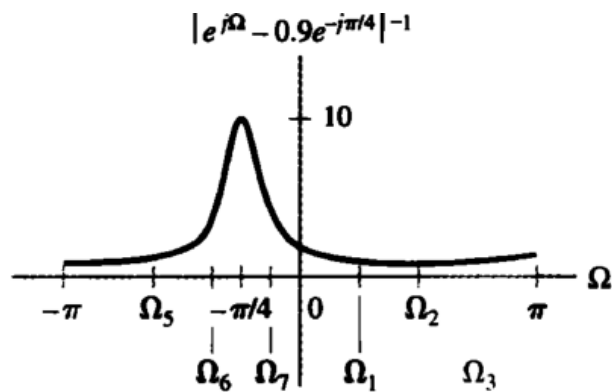
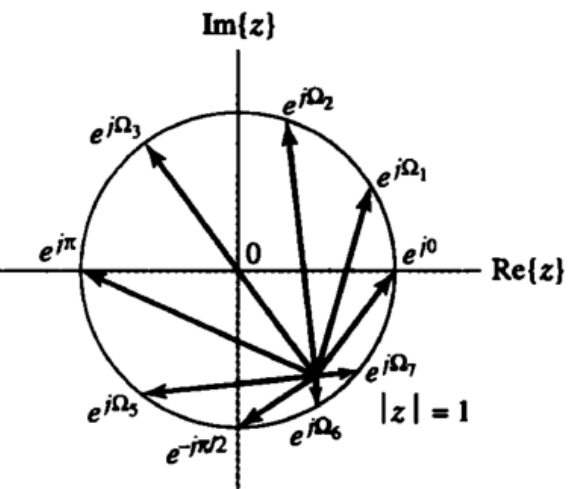


Example solution

Contribution of the pole at $z = 0.9e^{j\frac{\pi}{4}}$



Contribution of the pole at $z = 0.9e^{-j\frac{\pi}{4}}$



The overall magnitude response

Unilateral z-transform

- There are many applications where the signals involved are causal
 - It is advantageous to define the unilateral z-transform that works only on the non-negative time portion of the signal → no need to consider the ROC.

- Definition

$$F(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f[k]z^{-k} \quad (3)$$

- The inverse transform remains the same as in the bilateral case.
- Properties: similar to those of the bilateral transform → self-study.
 - One important exception is the **time shift property**. The unilateral version for a delayed signal is

$$x[n-k] \xleftrightarrow{zu} x[-k] + x[-k+1]z^{-1} + \dots + x[-1]z^{-k+1} + z^{-k}X(z) \text{ for } k > 0$$

- and for an advanced signal is

$$x[n+k] \xleftrightarrow{zu} -x[0]z^k - x[1]z^{k-1} - \dots - x[k-1]z + z^kX(z) \text{ for } k > 0$$

- Application: solving difference equations with initial conditions.

Solving difference equations with initial conditions via unilateral z-transform

- Taking unilateral z-transform of both sides of a difference equation
 - Use algebra to obtain the z-transform of the solution, and then find the inverse z-transform.

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

- Taking unilateral z-transform:

$$Y(z) \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k}}_{A(z)} + \underbrace{\sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=m+1}^N a_k y[-k+m] z^{-m}}_{C(z)} = X(z) \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}_{B(z)}$$

- Solving for z-transform of the solution: $Y(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)} - \frac{C(z)}{A(z)}$
- Find $\mathcal{Z}^{-1}[Y(z)]$ by partial fraction expansion or power series expansion.

- **Example:** find the forced and natural responses of the system

$$y[n] + 3y[n-1] = x[n] + x[n-1]$$

if the input is $x[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n]$ and the initial condition is $y[-1] = 2$

Example solution

- Taking unilateral z-transform of both sides of a difference equation

$$Y(z) \underbrace{(1 + 3z^{-1})}_{A(z)} + \underbrace{3y[-1]}_{C(z)} = X(z) \underbrace{(1 + z^{-1})}_{B(z)}$$

- Solving for z-transform of the solution:

$$Y(z) = \frac{1+z^{-1}}{1+3z^{-1}} \frac{1}{1-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)z^{-1}} - \frac{6}{1+3z^{-1}}$$

- Taking partial fraction expansion for $Y(z)$:

$$Y(z) = \left(\frac{4/7}{1 + 3z^{-1}} + \frac{3/7}{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)z^{-1}} \right) - \frac{6}{1 + 3z^{-1}}$$

- Taking inverse z-transform of $Y(z)$ yields

- Forced response $y^{(f)}[n] = \frac{4}{7}(-3)^n u[n] + \frac{3}{7} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n]$
- Natural response $y^{(n)}[n] = -6(-3)^n u[n]$
- Total response $y[n] = -\frac{38}{7}(-3)^n u[n] + \frac{3}{7} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n]$