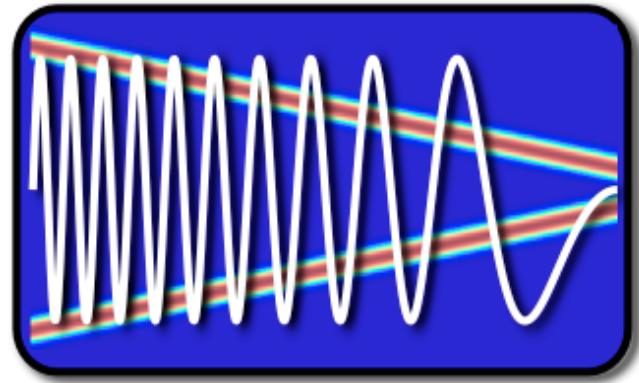


EE123



Digital Signal Processing

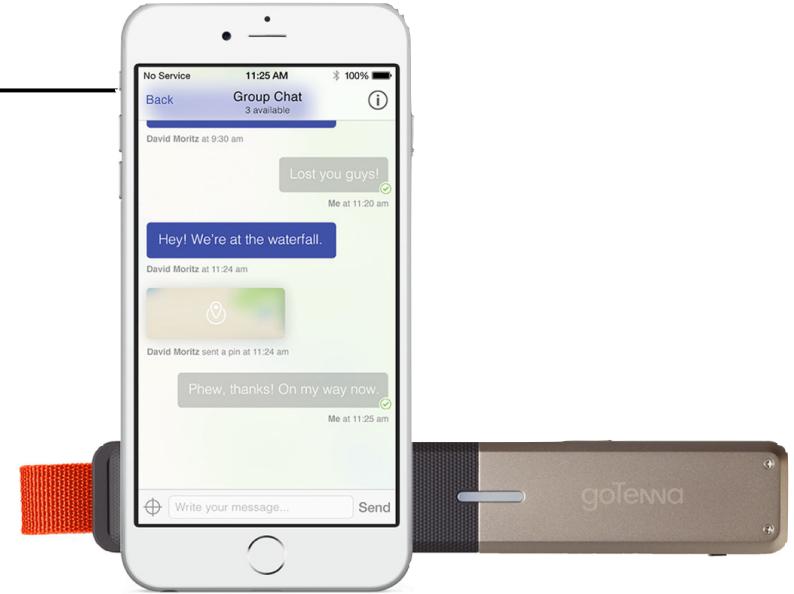
z -Transform

Today

- Last time:
 - DTFT - Ch 2
- Today:
 - finish DTFT
 - Z-Transform briefly!
 - Ch. 3
- Don't forget -- ham lectures 6:30pm!

Somthing Fun

- goTenna
 - Text messaging radio
 - Bluetooth phone interface
 - MURS VHF radio (5chnnels)
 - 2W
 - 0.5-5 mile range
 - encryption
 - 2x100\$
- Lab 6 implements a similar approach -- but without the slick system integration



Frequency Response of LTI Systems

Check response to a pure frequency:



$$\begin{aligned} y[n] &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] e^{j\omega_0(n-k)} \\ &= \left(\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] e^{-j\omega_0 k} \right) e^{j\omega_0 n} \\ &\quad H(e^{j\omega})|_{\omega=\omega_0} \end{aligned}$$

Frequency Response of LTI Systems

Check response to a pure frequency:



$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \text{DTFT}\{h[n]\}$$

$$y[n] = H(e^{j\omega})|_{\omega=\omega_0} e^{j\omega_0 n}$$

Output is the same pure frequency, scaled and phase-shifted!

$e^{j\omega_0 n}$ is an eigen function of LTI systems

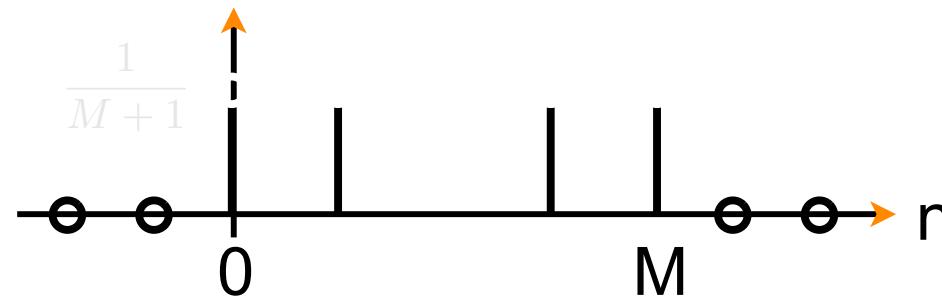
Recall eigen vectors satisfy: $A\nu = \lambda\nu$

Example 3

Frequency response of a causal moving average filter

$$y[n] = \frac{x[n-M] + \cdots + x[n]}{M+1}$$

Q: What type of filter is it? A: Low-Pass



$$h[n] = \frac{1}{M+1}w\left[n - \frac{M}{2}\right]$$

Example 3 Cont.

Frequency response of a causal moving average filter

$$h[n] = \frac{1}{M+1} w\left[n - \frac{M}{2}\right]$$

Same as example 1, only: Shifted by N, divided by M+1, M=2N

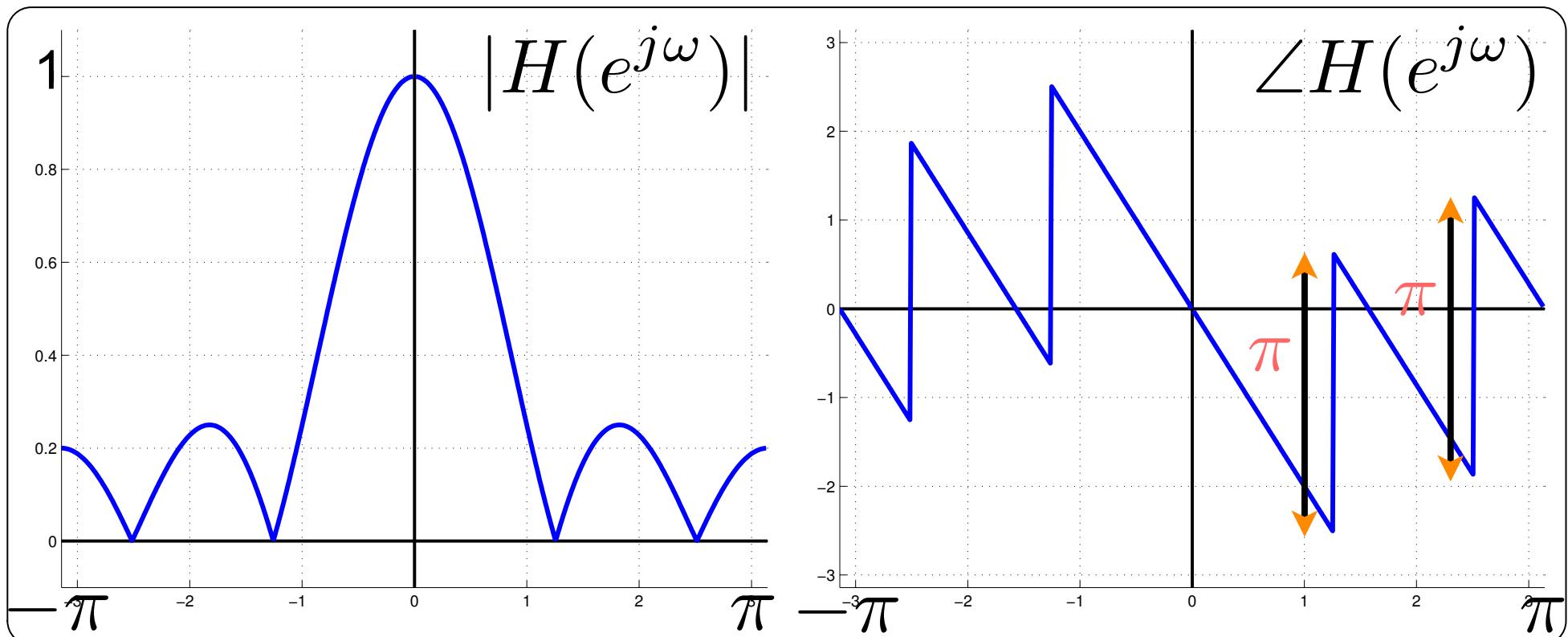
$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{e^{-j\omega \frac{M}{2}}}{M+1} \cdot \frac{\sin\left(\left(\frac{M}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right)\omega\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right)}$$

Example 3 Cont.

Frequency response of a causal moving average filter

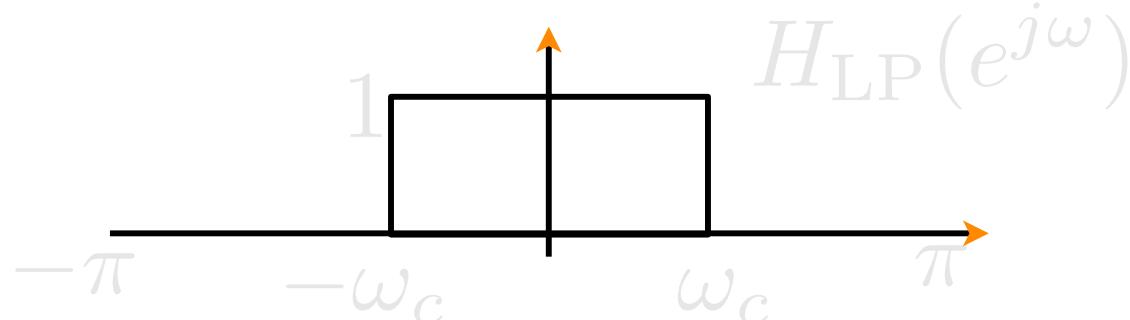
$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{e^{-j\omega \frac{M}{2}}}{M+1} \cdot \frac{\sin\left(\left(\frac{M}{2} + 1\right)\omega\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right)}$$

Not a sinc!



Example 4:

Impulse Response of an Ideal Low-Pass Filter



$$\begin{aligned} h_{LP}[n] &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} H_{LP}(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\omega_c}^{\omega_c} e^{j\omega n} d\omega \end{aligned}$$

Example 4

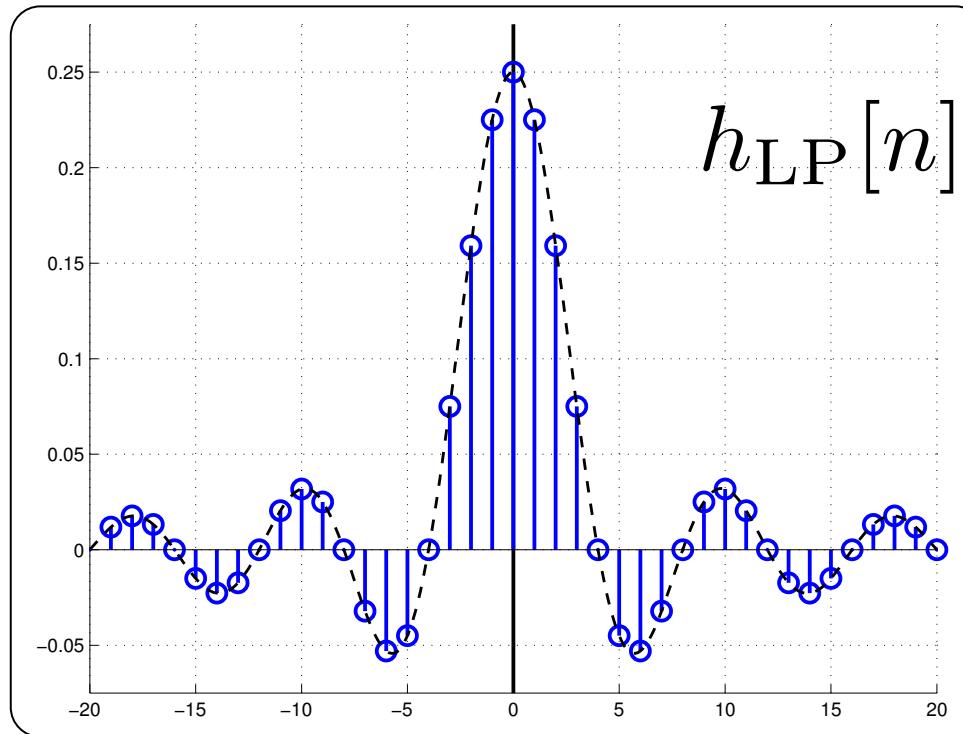
Impulse Response of an Ideal Low-Pass Filter

$$\begin{aligned} h_{\text{LP}}[n] &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} H_{\text{LP}}(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\omega_c}^{\omega_c} e^{j\omega n} d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi j n} \left. e^{j\omega n} \right|_{-\omega_c}^{\omega_c} = 2j \sin(\omega_c n) \\ &= \frac{\sin(\omega_c n)}{\pi n} \end{aligned}$$

Example 4

Impulse Response of an Ideal Low-Pass Filter

$$h_{LP}[n] = \frac{\sin(w_c n)}{\pi n} \quad \text{sampled “sinc”}$$



Non causal! Truncate and shift right to make causal

Example 4

Impulse Response of an Ideal Low-Pass Filter

Non causal! Truncate and shift right to make causal

How does it changes the frequency response?

Truncation:

$$\tilde{h}_{\text{LP}}[n] = w_N[n] \cdot h_{\text{LP}}[n]$$

property 2.9.7:

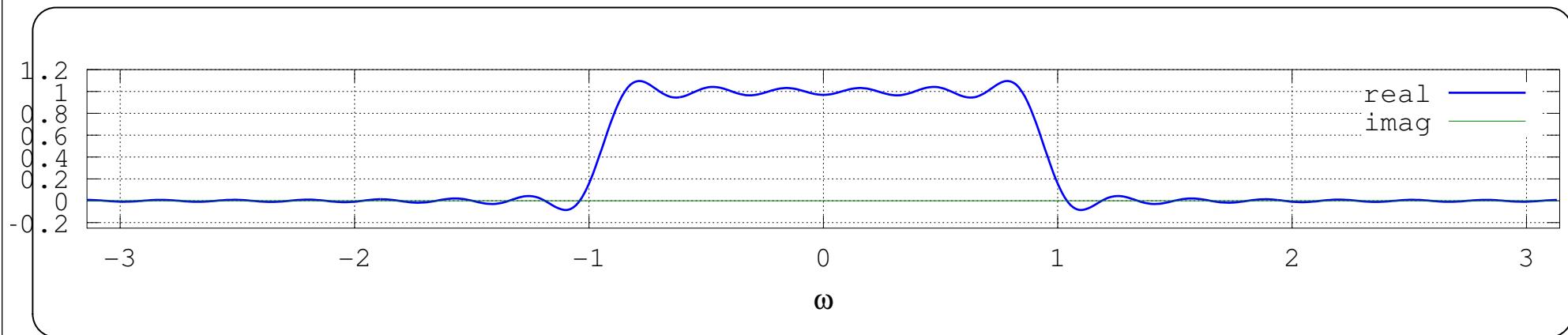
$$\tilde{H}_{\text{LP}}(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} H_{\text{LP}}(e^{j\theta})W(e^{j(\omega-\theta)})d\theta$$

Periodic convolution

Example 4

We get “smearing” of the frequency response

We get rippling



The z-Transform

- Used for:
 - Analysis of LTI systems
 - Solving difference equations
 - Determining system stability
 - Finding frequency response of stable systems

Eigen Functions of LTI Systems

- Consider an LTI system with impulse response $h[n]$:



- We already showed that $x[n] = e^{j\omega n}$ are eigen-functions
- What if $x[n] = z^n = r e^{j\omega n}$

Eigen Functions of LTI Systems

$$\begin{aligned}y[n] &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] z^{n-k} \\&= \left(\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] z^{-k} \right) z^n = H(z) z^n\end{aligned}$$

- $x[n] = z^n$ are also eigen-functions of LTI Systems
- $H(z)$ is called a transfer function
- $H(z)$ exists for larger class of $h[n]$ than $H(e^{j\omega})$

The z Transform

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

- Since $z=re^{j\omega}$

$$X(z)|_{z=e^{j\omega}} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j\omega n} = \mathcal{DTFT}\{x[n]\}$$

Region of Convergence (ROC)

- The ROC is a set of values of z for which the sum

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

Converges.

Region of Convergence (ROC)

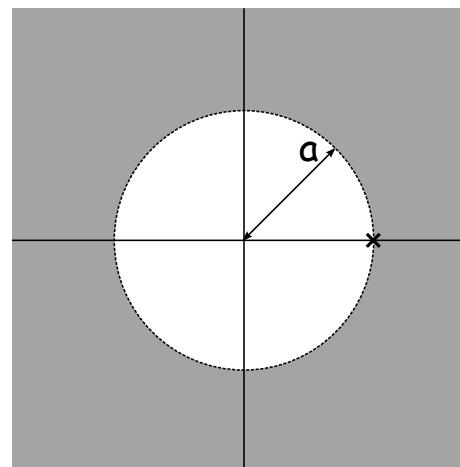
- Example 1: Right-sided sequence $x[n] = a^n u[n]$

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

recall:

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

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

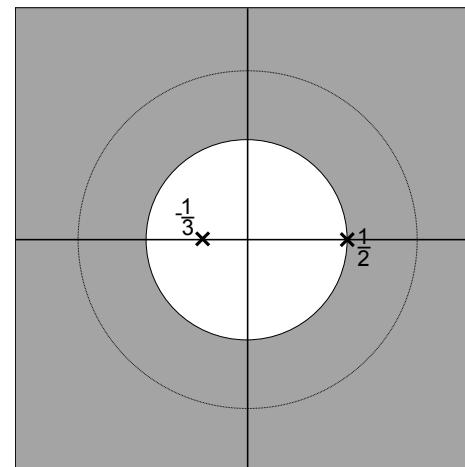


Region of Convergence (ROC)

- Example 2: $x[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n] + \left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[n]$

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{ROC} &= \left\{z : |z| > \frac{1}{2}\right\} \cap \left\{z : |z| > \frac{1}{3}\right\} \\ &= \left\{z : |z| > \frac{1}{2}\right\}\end{aligned}$$



Region of Convergence (ROC)

- Example 3: Left sided sequence $x[n] = -a^n u[-n-1]$

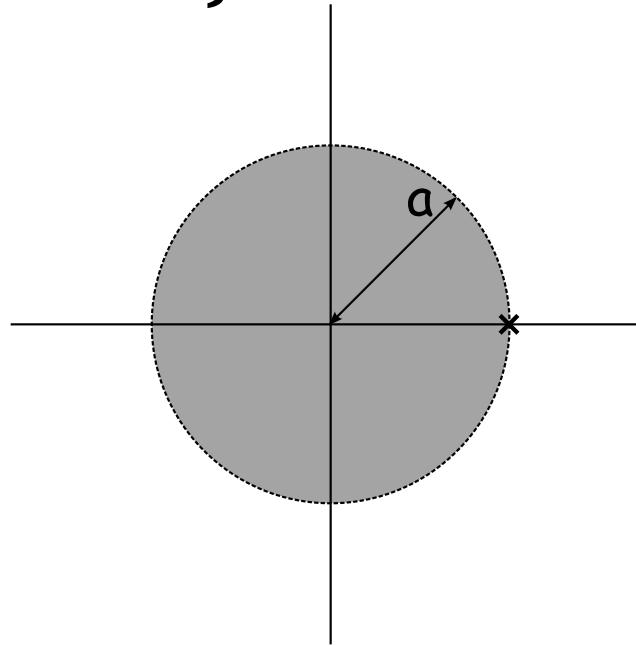
$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} -a^n z^{-n} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} -a^{-m} z^m = 1 - \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (a^{-1}z)^m$$

if $|a^{-1}z| < 1$, i.e., $|z| < |a|$ then,

$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= 1 - \frac{1}{1 - a^{-1}z} \\ &= \frac{-a^{-1}z}{1 - a^{-1}z} = \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}} \end{aligned}$$

Region of Convergence (ROC)

- Expression is the same as Example 1!
- $\text{ROC} = \{z: |z| < |\alpha|\}$ is different



- The z-transform without ROC does not uniquely define a sequence!

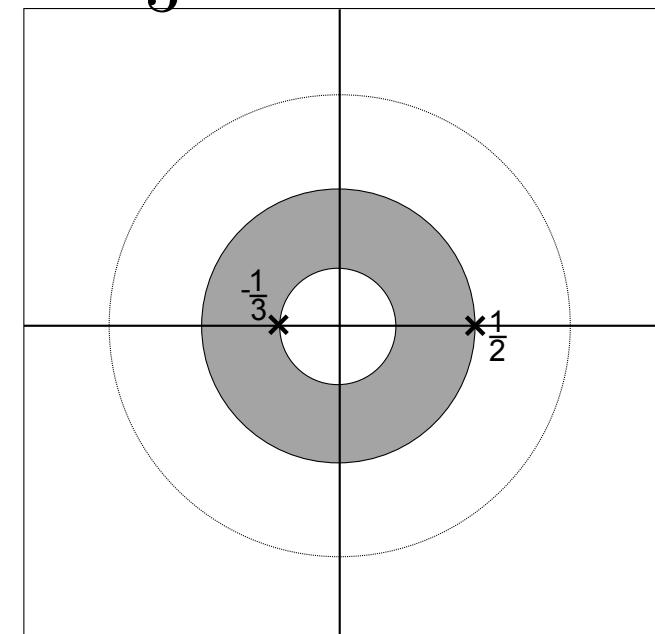
Region of Convergence (ROC)

- Example 4: $x[n] = -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[-n-1] + \left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[n]$

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

Same as example 2

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ROC} &= \left\{ z : |z| < \frac{1}{2} \right\} \cap \left\{ z : |z| > \frac{1}{3} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ z : \frac{1}{3} < |z| < \frac{1}{2} \right\} \end{aligned}$$



Region of Convergence (ROC)

- Example 5: $x[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n] - \left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u[-n-1]$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ROC} &= \{z : |z| > \frac{1}{2}\} \cap \{z : |z| < \frac{1}{3}\} \\ &= \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

- Example 6: $x[n] = a^n$, two sided $a \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ROC} &= \{z : |z| > a\} \cap \{z : |z| < a\} \\ &= \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

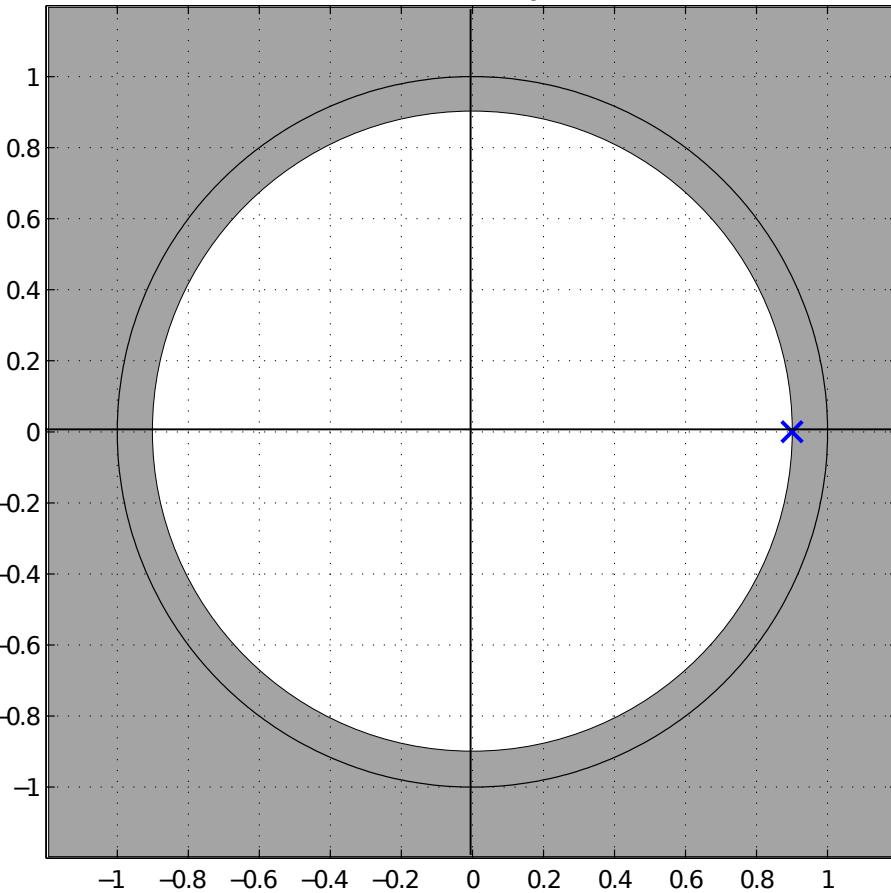
Region of Convergence (ROC)

- Example 7: Finite sequence $x[n] = a^n u[n] u[-n + M - 1]$

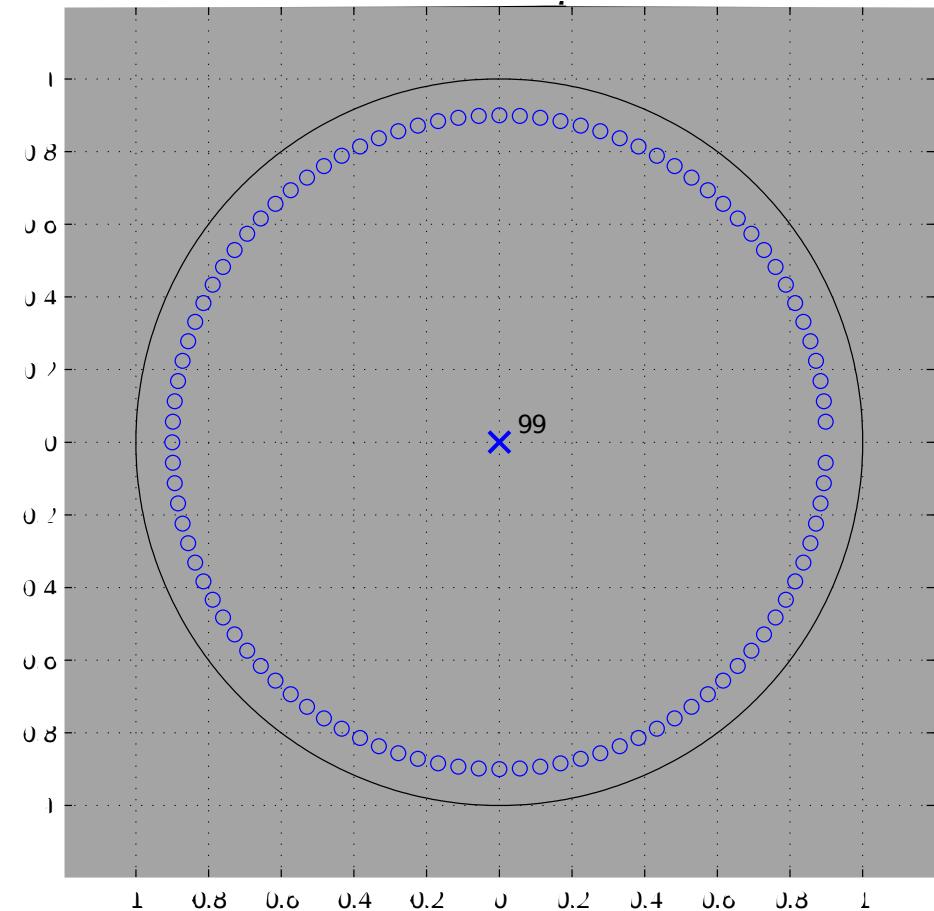
$$\begin{aligned} X[z] &= \sum_{n=0}^{M-1} a^n z^{-n} && \text{Finite, always converges} \\ &= \frac{1 - a^M z^{-M}}{1 - az^{-1}} && \text{Zero cancels pole} \\ &= \prod_{k=1}^{M-1} \left(1 - ae^{j\frac{2\pi k}{M}} z^{-1}\right) \\ \text{ROC} &= \{z : |z| > 0\} \end{aligned}$$

Region of Convergence (ROC)

Infinite sequence



finite sequence

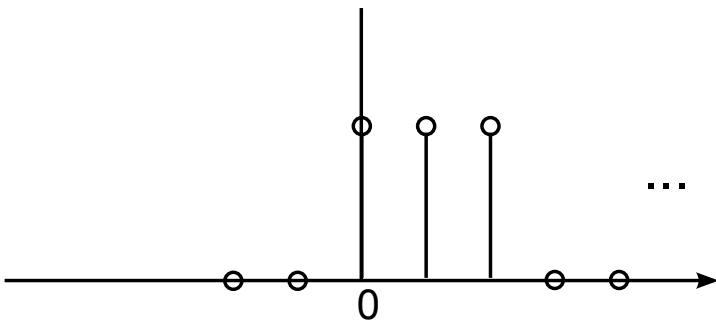


Properties of ROC

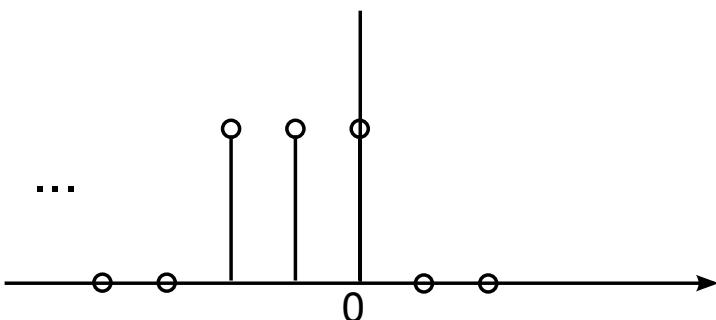
- A ring or a disk in Z-plane, centered at the origin
- DTFT converges iff ROC includes the unit circle
- ROC can't contain poles

Properties of ROC

- For finite duration sequences, ROC is the entire z-plane, except possibly $z=0$, $z=\infty$



$$X(z) = 1 + z^{-1} + z^{-2} \quad \text{ROC excludes } z = 0$$



$$X(z) = 1 + z^1 + z^2 \quad \text{ROC excludes } z = \infty$$

Properties of the ROC

- For right-sided sequences: ROC extends outward from the outermost pole to infinity

Examples 1,2

- For left-sided: inwards from inner most pole to zero

Example 3

- For two-sided, ROC is a ring - or do not exist

Examples 4,5,6

Several Properties of the Z-transform

$$x[n - n_d] \leftrightarrow z^{-n_d} X(z)$$

$$z_0^n x[n] \leftrightarrow X\left(\frac{z}{z_0}\right)$$

$$nx[n] \leftrightarrow -z \frac{dX(z)}{dz}$$

$$x[-n] \leftrightarrow X(z^{-1})$$

$$x[n] * y[n] \leftrightarrow X(z)Y(z)$$

ROC at least $\text{ROC}_x \cap \text{ROC}_y$

Inversion of the z-Transform

- In general, by contour integration within the ROC

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

- Ways to avoid it:

- Inspection (known transforms)
- Properties of the z-transform
- Power series expansion
- Partial fraction expansion
- Residue theorem

- Most useful is the inverse of rational polynomials

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

Why?