Transfer Functions 0 00000

Transforrm-Domain Representation of Signals: The Z-Transform

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Overview

1 The Z-Transform

- Definition
- The Z-Domain Properties
- The Inverse Z-Transform
- 2 Transfer Functions
 - Definition
 - System Connections
- 3 Poles and Zeros

4 Conclusions

References:

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[2] S. Haykin, Adaptive Filter Theory, 3rd ed. Brentice Hall, 1996

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The Z-Transform ●○○ ○	Transfer Functions 0 00000	Poles and Zeros	Conclusions
Definition			
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Z-Domain Definition

- Continuous-time systems are commonly analysed using the Laplace transform.
- For discrete-time systems, the transform corresponding to the Laplace transform is the *z*-transform.
- The z-transform (ZT [·]) of a digital signal,
 x(n), -∞ < n < ∞, is defined as the power series:

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n}, \qquad (1)$$

where X(z) represents the z-transform of x(n), i.e., $x(n) \rightleftharpoons X(z)$.

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Definition

Transfer Functions 0 00000 Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

Z-Domain Definition (cont'd)

The variable z is a complex variable, and can be expressed in polar form as

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

where r is the magnitude (radius) of z and θ is the angle of z.

- When r = 1, |z| = 1 is called the unit circle on the z-plane.
- Since the z-transform involves an infinite power series, it exists only for those values of z where the power series defined in (1) converges.
- The region on the complex z-plane in which the power series converges is called the *region of convergence*.
- For causal signals, the two-sided z-transform defined in (1) becomes a one-sided z-transform expressed as

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

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The Z-Transform 00●	Transfer Functions 0 00000	Poles and Zeros	Conclusions
Definition			

Example

Find the z-transform of the exponential function

 $x(n)=a^nu(n).$

Answer: The *z*-transform can be computed as

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

Using the infinite geometric series given in Appendix A, we have

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{z}{z - a}$$
 if $|az^{-1}| < 1$.

The equivalent condition for convergence is |z| > |a|, which is the region outside the circle with radius *a*.

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The Z-Domain Properties

The properties of the z-transform are extremely useful for the analysis of discrete-time LTI systems. These properties are summarised as follows:

1 *Linearity (superposition)*:

The z-transform of the sum of two sequences is the sum of the z-transforms of the individual sequences. That is,

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{ZT} \left[a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n) \right] &= a_1 \operatorname{ZT} \left[x_1(n) \right] + a_2 \operatorname{ZT} \left[x_2(n) \right] \\ &= a_1 X_1(z) + a_2 X_2(z), \end{aligned}$$

where a_1 and a_2 are constants.

2 Time shifting:

The z-transform of the shifted (delayed) signal

$$Y(z) = \operatorname{ZT} \left[x(n-k) \right] = z^{-k} X(z) \,.$$

Thus, the effect of delaying a signal by k samples is equivalent to multiplying its z-transform by a factor of z_{-k}^{-k} . For $z_{-k} = z_{-k}$

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Transfer Functions 0 00000 Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

The Inverse Z-Transform example, $\operatorname{ZT}[x(n-1)] = z^{-1}X(z)$. The unit delay z^{-1} corresponds to a time shift of one sample in the time domain.

3 Convolution:

Consider the signal

$$x(n) = x_1(n) \star x_2(n),$$

we have

$$X(z)=X_1(z)X_2(z)\,.$$

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Transfer Functions 0 00000 Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

The Inverse Z-Transform

The Inverse Z-Transform

The inverse z-transform is defined as

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

where C denotes the closed contour of X(z) taken in a counterclockwise direction.

Several methods are available for finding the inverse z-transform: long division, partial-fraction expansion, and residue method. A limitation of the long-division method is that it does not lead to a closed form solution. However, it is simple and lends itself to software implementation. Both the partial-fraction-expansion and the residue methods lead to closed form solutions. The main disadvantage is the need to factorise the denominator polynomial, which is difficult if the order of X(z) is high.

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The Z-Transform	Transfer Functions	Poles and Zeros	Conclusions
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Definition			

Definition

Consider the LTI system illustrated below. Using the convolution property, we have

$$Y(z) = X(z)H(z), \qquad (2)$$

where $X(z) = \operatorname{ZT}[x(n)], Y(z) = \operatorname{ZT}[y(n)]$, and $H(z) = \operatorname{ZT}[h(n)]$. The combination of time- and frequency-domain representations of LTI system is illustrated below. This diagram shows that we can replace the time-domain convolution by the z-domain multiplication.



The transfer function of an LTI system is defined in terms of the system's input and output. From (2), we have $H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)}$.

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System Connections

Transfer Functions 0 00000 Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

Cascade or Parallel Connection

The *z*-transform can be used in creating alternative filters that have exactly the same input-output behaviour. An important example is the cascade or parallel connection of two or more systems, as illustrated below. In the cascade (series) interconnection, we have



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System Connections

Transfer Functions 0 0000 Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

Cascade or Parallel Connection (cont'd)

Therefore, the overall transfer function of the cascade of the two systems is

$$H(z) = H_1(z)H_2(z) = H_2(z)H_1(z)$$
.

The overall impulse response of the system is

$$h(n) = h_1(n) \star h_2(n) = h_2(n) \star h_1(n)$$
.

Similarly, the overall impulse response and transfer function of the parallel connection of two LTI systems are given by

$$h(n) = h_1(n) + h_2(n)$$
.

and

$$H(z) = H_1(z) + H_2(z)$$

If we can multiply several transfer functions to get a higher-order system, we can also factor polynomials to break down a large system into smaller sections.

The Z-Transform	Transfer Functions	Poles and Zeros	Conclusions
000	00000		
System Connections			

An LTI Example

The LTI system with transfer function

$$H(z) = 1 - 2z^{-1} + z^{-3}$$

can be factored as

$$H(z) = (1 - z^{-1}) (1 - z^{-1} - z^{-2}) = H_1(z)H_2(z).$$

Thus, the overall system H(z) can be realised as the cascade of the first-order system $H_1(z) = 1 - z^{-1}$ and the second-order system $H_2(z) = 1 - z^{-1} - z^{-2}$.

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3

System Connections

Transfer Functions

Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

Z-Transform of FIR and IIR systems

The FIR filter can be transformed to the z-transform as

$$\begin{array}{lll} Y(z) & = & b_0 X(z) + b_1 z^{-1} X(z) + \dots + b_{L-1} z^{-(L-1)} X(z) \\ & = & \left(b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_{L-1} z^{-(L-1)} \right) X(z) \,. \end{array}$$

Therefore, the transfer function of the FIR filter is expressed as

$$H(z) = b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_{L-1} z^{-(L-1)} = \sum_{l=0}^{L-1} b_l z^{-l}.$$
 (3)

Similarly, taking the z-transform of both sides of the IIR filter

$$\begin{array}{rcl} Y(z) & = & b_0 X(z) + b_1 z^{-1} X(z) + \dots + b_{L-1} z^{-(L-1)} X(z) - a_1 z^{-1} Y(z) - \dots - a_M z^{-M} Y(z) \\ & = & \left(\sum_{l=0}^{L-1} b_l z^{-l} \right) X(z) - \left(\sum_{l=1}^{M} a_m z^{-m} \right) Y(z) \,. \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow H(z) = \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{L-1} b_l z^{-l}}{1 + \sum_{m=1}^{M} a_m z^{-m}} = \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{L-1} b_l z^{-l}}{\sum_{m=0}^{M} a_m z^{-m}}$$
(4)

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System Connections

Transfer Functions ○ ○○○○● Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

Detailed signal-flow diagram of an IIR filter



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3

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Conclusions

Using the geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^n = \frac{1-x^N}{1-x}, \qquad x \neq 1.$$

The numerator and denominator polynomials of H(z) in (4) can be factored and expressed as the following rational function

$$H(z) = b_0 \frac{\prod_{l=1}^{L-1} (z - z_l)}{\prod_{m=1}^{M} (z - p_m)} = \frac{b_0 (z - z_1) (z - z_2) \cdots (z - z_{L-1})}{(z - p_1) (z - p_2) \cdots (z - p_M)}$$

The roots of the numerator polynomial are the zeros of the transfer function H(z) since they are the values of z for which H(z) = 0. Thus, H(z) given in (4) has (L-1) zeros at $z = z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{L-1}$. The roots of the denominator polynomial are the poles since they are the values of z such that $H(z) = \infty$, and there are M poles at

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Digital Signal Processing (ECE407) — Lecture no. 2

Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

 $z = p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_M$. The LTI system described in (4) is a pole-zero system, while the system described in (3) is an all-zero system. The pole-zero diagram provides an insight into the properties of an LTI system. To find poles and zeros of a rational function H(z), we can use the MATLAB function roots on both the numerator and denominator polynomials. Another useful MATLAB function for analysing transfer function is zplane(b,a), which displays the pole-zero diagram of H(z).

Example: Consider the IIR filter with the transfer function $H(z) = \frac{1}{1-z^{-1}+0.9z^{-2}}$. We can plot the pole-zero diagrams using the following MATLAB script

Dr. Waleed Al-Hanafy

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Conclusions





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Transfer Functions 0 00000 Poles and Zeros

Conclusions

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Concluding remarks

- The Z-transform of discrete time signals is introduced
- Transfer functions of systems in the Z-domain is addressed
- Both FIR and IIR examples are given
- Poles and Zeros of systems are analysed
- System stability in terms of poles is described

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