

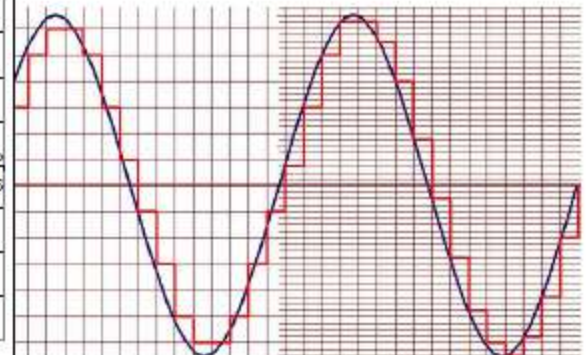
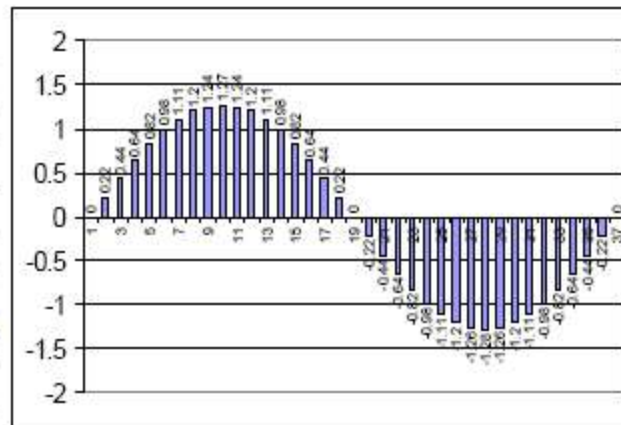
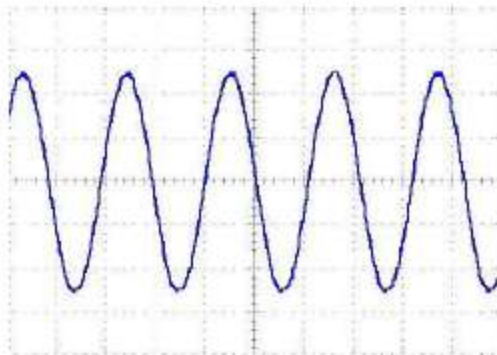
1.1 – What is Digital Signal Processing ?

A) Digital : Signals are either Analogue, Discrete, or Digital signals.

• Analogue Signal :
Continuous in both time
and amplitude, any value
at any time can be found.

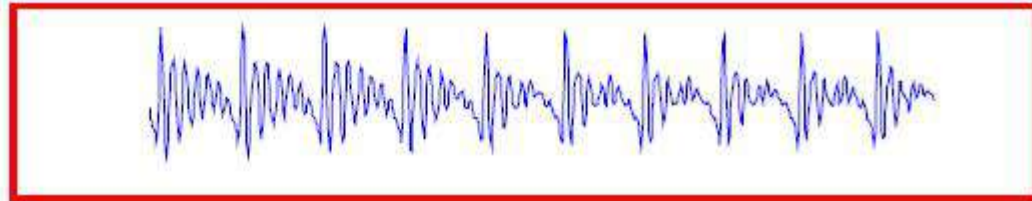
• Discrete Signal :
Discrete in time (sampled
signal) & Continuous in
amplitude.

• Digital Signal :
Discrete in time (sampled
signal) & Discrete in
amplitude (Quantized
Samples).



B) Signal : It is an information-bearing function, It is either:

➤ *1-D signal as speech.*



2-D signal as grey-scale image $\{i(x,y)\}$.



➤ *3-D signal as video $\{r(x,y,t),g(x,y,t),b(x,y,t)\}$.*

C) Processing :

*Signal Processing refers to the work of manipulating signals so that information carried can be expressed, transmitted, restored,... etc in a more **efficient & reliable** way by the system (hardware \ software).*

Least
resource
usage

Least
error

- General Purpose Processors (GPP), Micro-Controllers.
- Digital Signal Processors (DSP); Dedicated Integrated Circuits.

Fast

- Programmable Logic (PLD, FPGA).

Faster

Real-
time
DSP'ing

- Programming Languages: Pascal, C, C++,...
- High-Level Languages: Matlab, MathCad,...
- Dedicated Tools (e.g. Filter design s/w packages).

1.2 – Why DSP ?

- *Greater Flexibility*

The same DSP hardware can be programmed and reprogrammed to perform a variety of functions.

- *Guaranteed Precision*

Accuracy is only determined by the number of bits used. (not on resistors, ...etc; analogue parameters).

- *No drift in performance with temperature or age.*

- *Perfect Reproducibility*

Identical Performance from unit to unit is obtained since there are no variations due to component tolerance. e.g. a digital recording can be copied or reproduced several times with the same quality.

- *Superior Performance*

Performing tasks that are not possible with ASP, e.g. linear phase response and complex adaptive filtering algorithms.

- *DSP benefits from the tremendous advances in semiconductor technology.*

Achieving greater reliability, lower cost, smaller size, lower power consumption, and higher speed.

1.3 – DSP LIMITATIONS

- *Speed & Cost Limitations of ADC & DAC*

Either too expensive or don't have sufficient resolution for large-bandwidth DSP applications.

- *Finite Word-Length Problems*

Degradation in system performance may result due to the usage of a limited number of bits for economic considerations.

- *Design Time*

DSP system design requires a knowledgeable DSP engineer possessing necessary software resources to accomplish a design in a reasonable time.

What is DSP Used For?



...And much more!

Application Areas

Image Processing

Pattern recognition
Robotic vision
Image enhancement
Facsimile
animation

Instrumentation/Control

spectrum analysis
noise reduction
data compression
position and rate control

Speech/Audio

speech recognition
speech synthesis
text to speech
digital audio
equalization

Military

secure communications
radar processing
sonar processing
missile guidance

Telecommunications

Echo cancellation
Adaptive equalization
ADPCM trans-coders
Spread spectrum
Video conferencing

Biomedical

patient monitoring
scanners
EEG brain mappers
ECG Analysis
X-Ray storage/enhancement

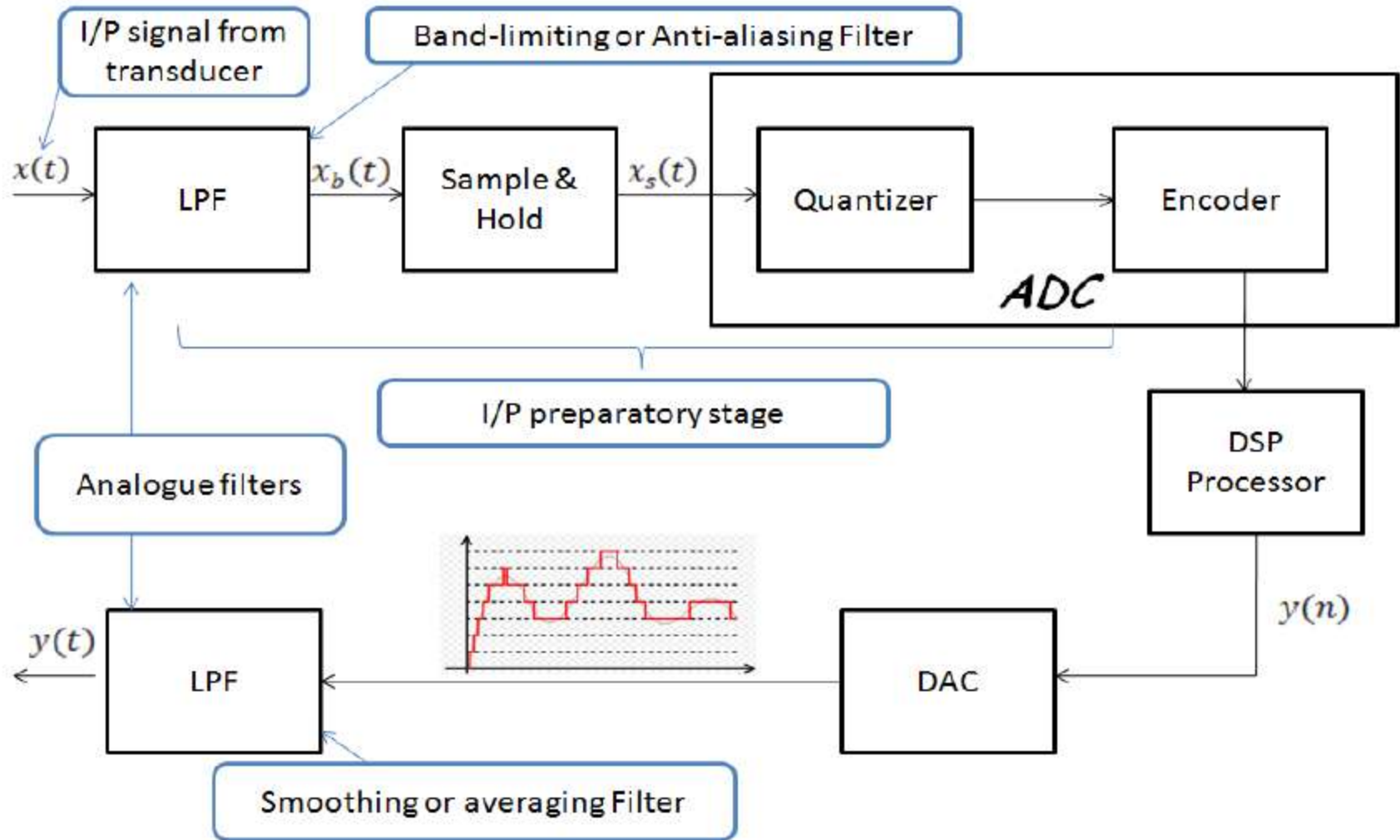
Consumer applications

cellular mobile phones
UMTS (universal Mobile Telec. Sys.)
digital television
digital cameras
internet phone
etc.

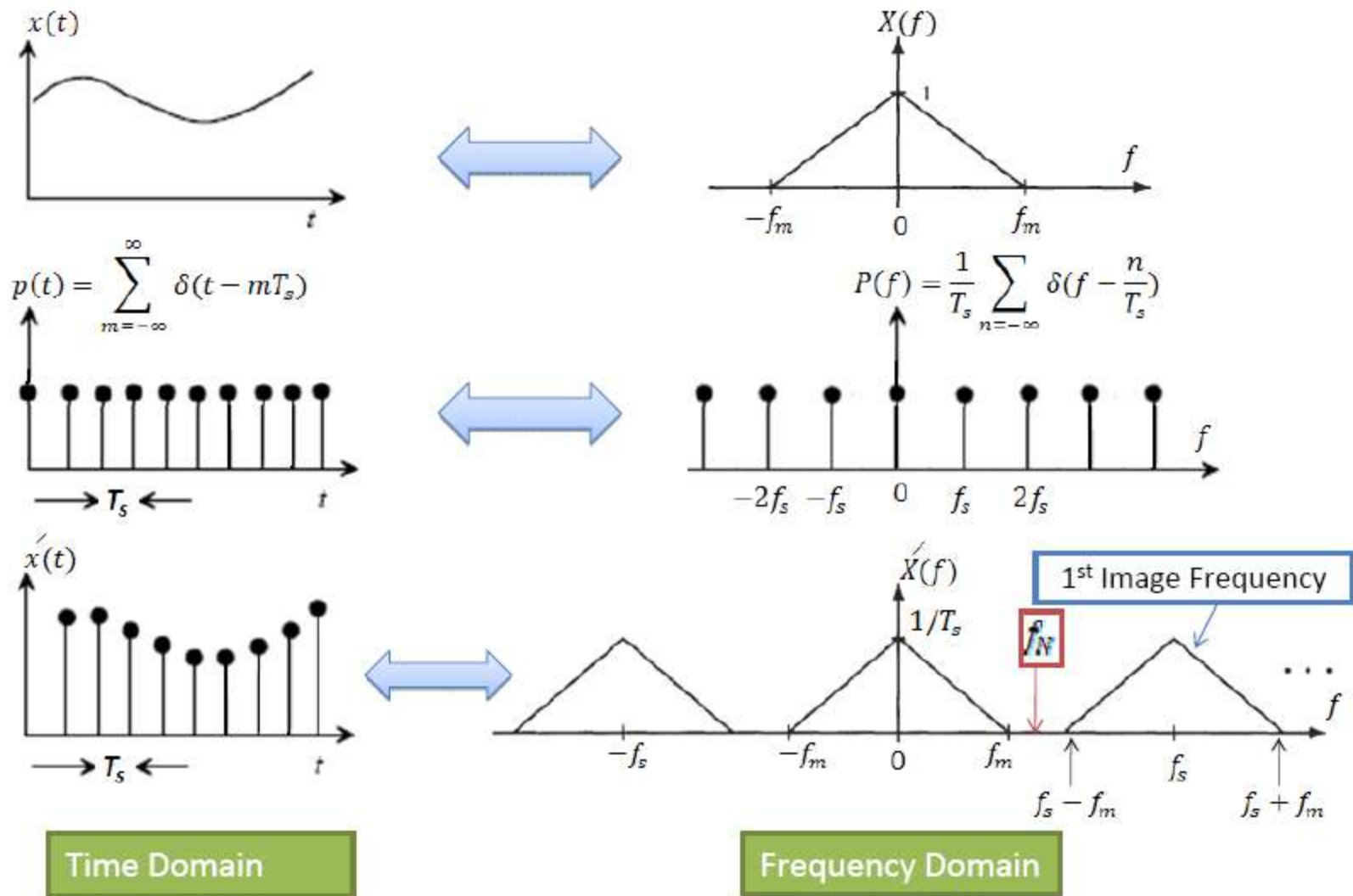
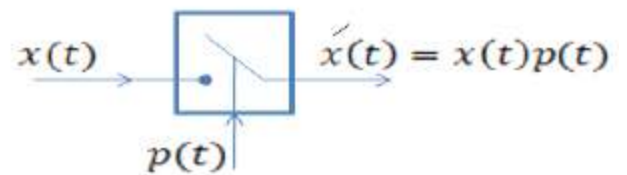
DSP Devices & Architectures

- Selecting a DSP – several choices:
 - Fixed-point;
 - Floating point;
 - Application-specific devices
(e.g. FFT processors, speech recognizers, etc.).
- Main DSP Manufacturers:
 - Texas Instruments (<http://www.ti.com>)
 - Motorola (<http://www.motorola.com>)
 - Analog Devices (<http://www.analog.com>)

2.1 – Typical Real-Time DSP System



2.2 – Sampling Theorem & Aliasing

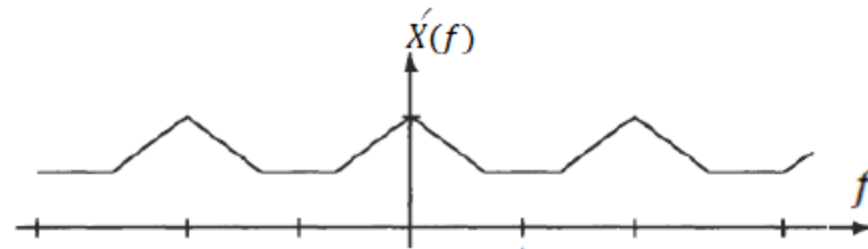
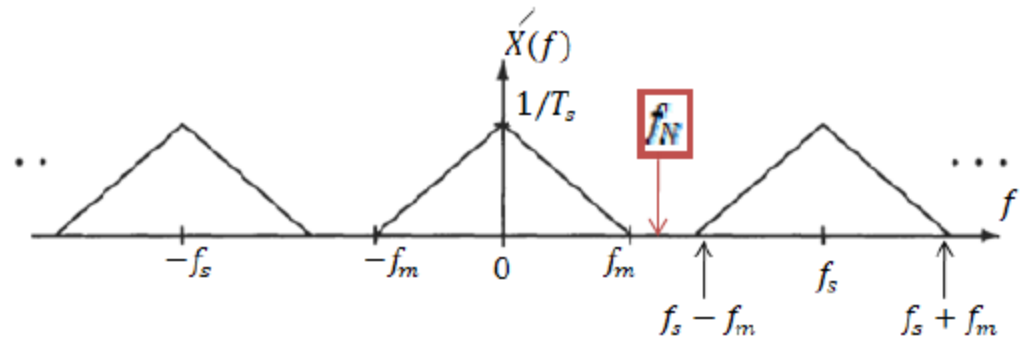


2.2 – Sampling Theorem & Aliasing - continued

Sampling Theory: $f_s \geq 2f_m$

Nyquist Frequency: $f_N = \frac{f_s}{2} \geq f_m$

so, when $\frac{f_s}{2} > f_m \rightarrow$ No aliasing



- In practice, aliasing is always present because of noise & the existence of signal outside the band of interest.
- The problem then is deciding the level of aliasing that is acceptable and then designing a suitable anti-aliasing filter & choosing an appropriate sampling frequency to achieve this.

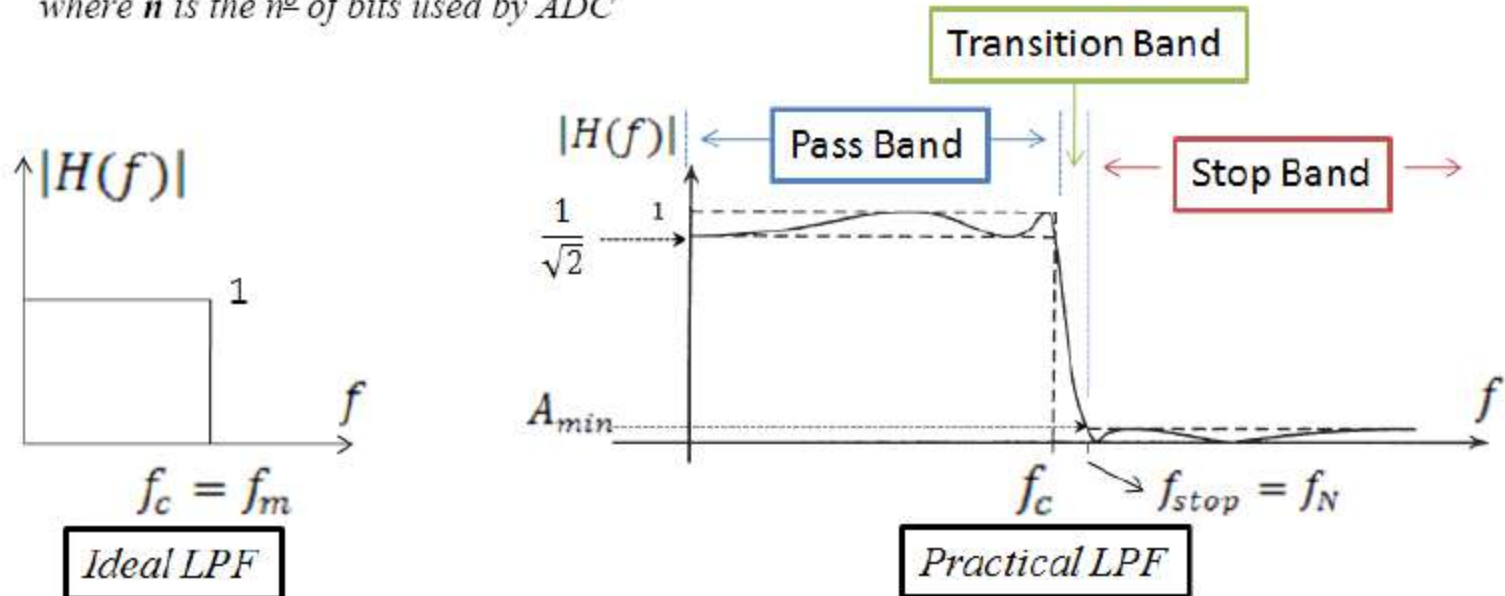
2.3 – Anti-aliasing Filtering

To reduce the effect of aliasing:

- Sharp Cut-off anti-aliasing filters are normally used to band-limit the signal.
- Increasing the sampling frequency to widen the separation between the signal & the image spectra.
- Practical LPF provides sufficient attenuation at $f > f_N$; $f > f_{stop}$ to a level not detectable by ADC,

$$\begin{aligned} A_{\min} &= 20 \log(\sqrt{1.5} \times 2^n) \\ &= 6.02n + 1.76 \quad \text{dB} \end{aligned}$$

where n is the no of bits used by ADC



2.3.1 – Butterworth(LPF)

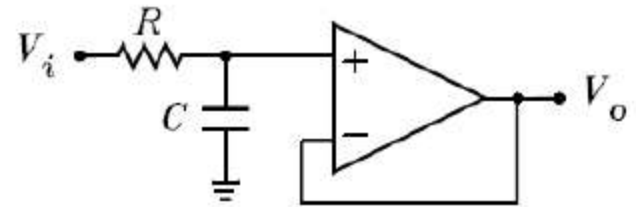
$$H(f) = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = \frac{1/j\omega c}{R + 1/j\omega c} = \frac{1}{1 + j2\pi fRC}$$

$$|H(f)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \text{ at } f = f_c$$

$$\text{then, } f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

$$|H(f)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f}{f_c}\right)^2}}$$

$$\text{Generally, } |H(f)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f}{f_c}\right)^{2N}}} ; N: \text{ order of the filter}$$



First Order LPF (N=1)

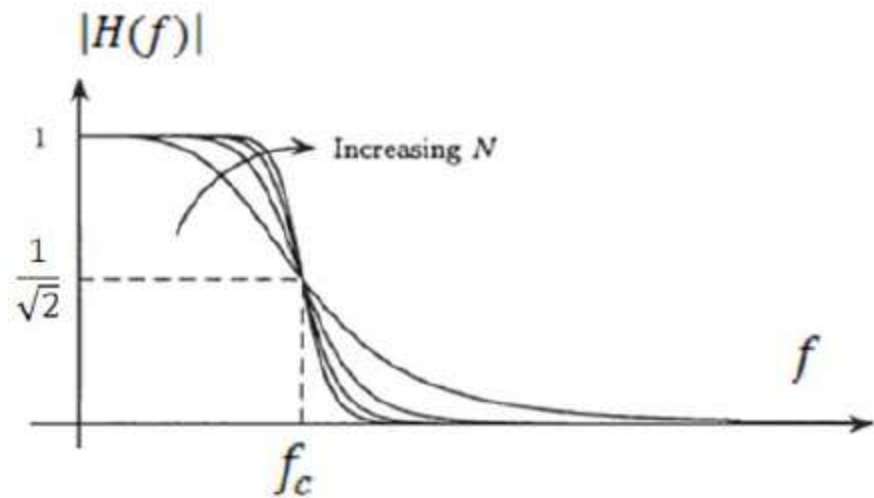
2.3.1 – Butterworth(LPF) - continued

Higher N

- *narrower transition width (steeper roll-off).*
- *more phase distortion.*
- *allows the use of low sampling rate.*
- *slower, cheaper ADC*

Higher f_s

- *fast, expensive ADC. (real-time signal processing trend).*
- *usage of a simple anti-aliasing filter which minimizes phase distortion.*
- *Improved SNR.*

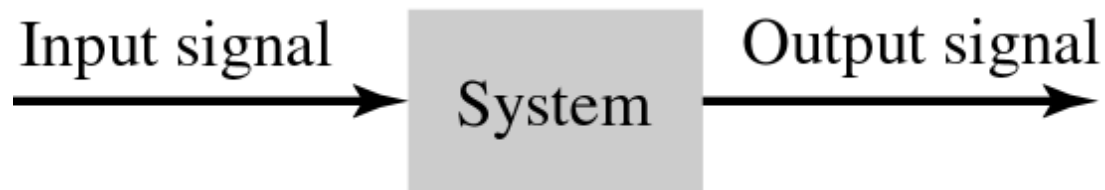


SIGNALS & SYSTEMS

Introduction to signals & systems

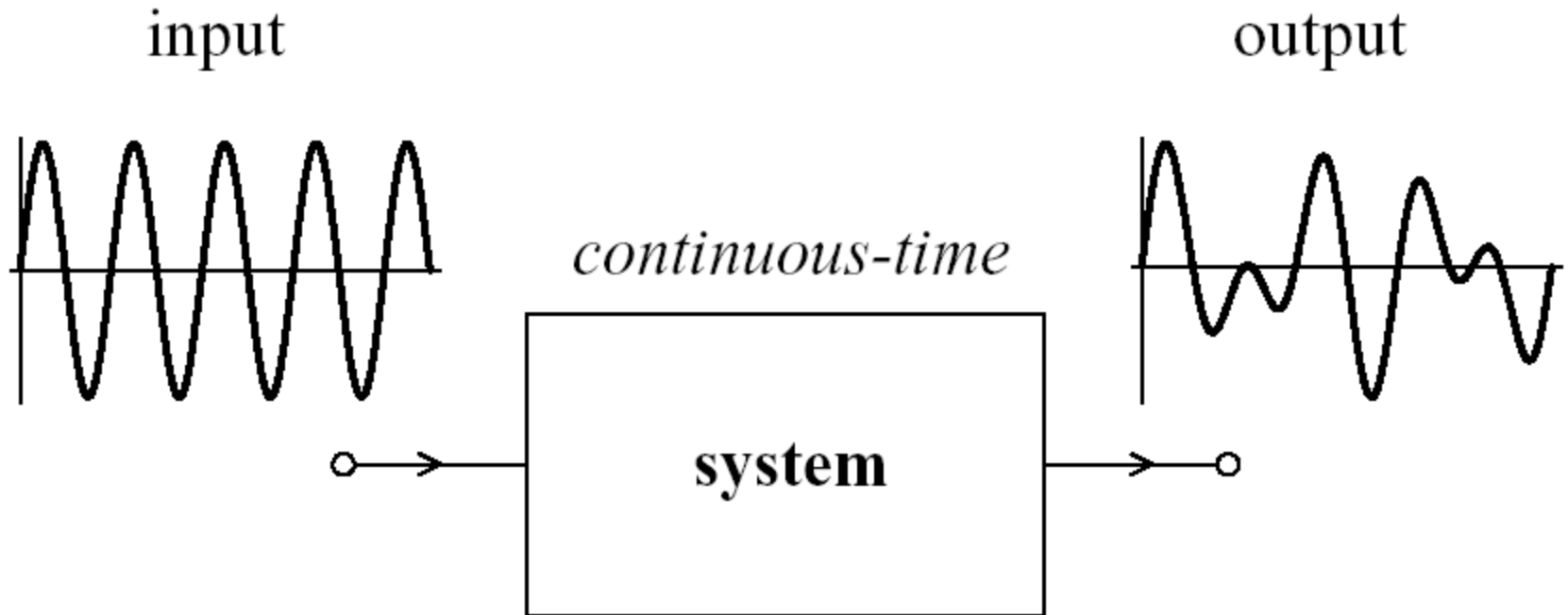
Signals & Systems

- **Signal:** a function of one or more variables that conveys information on the nature of a physical phenomenon.
- **System:** an entity that manipulates one or more signals to accomplish a function, thereby yielding new signals.



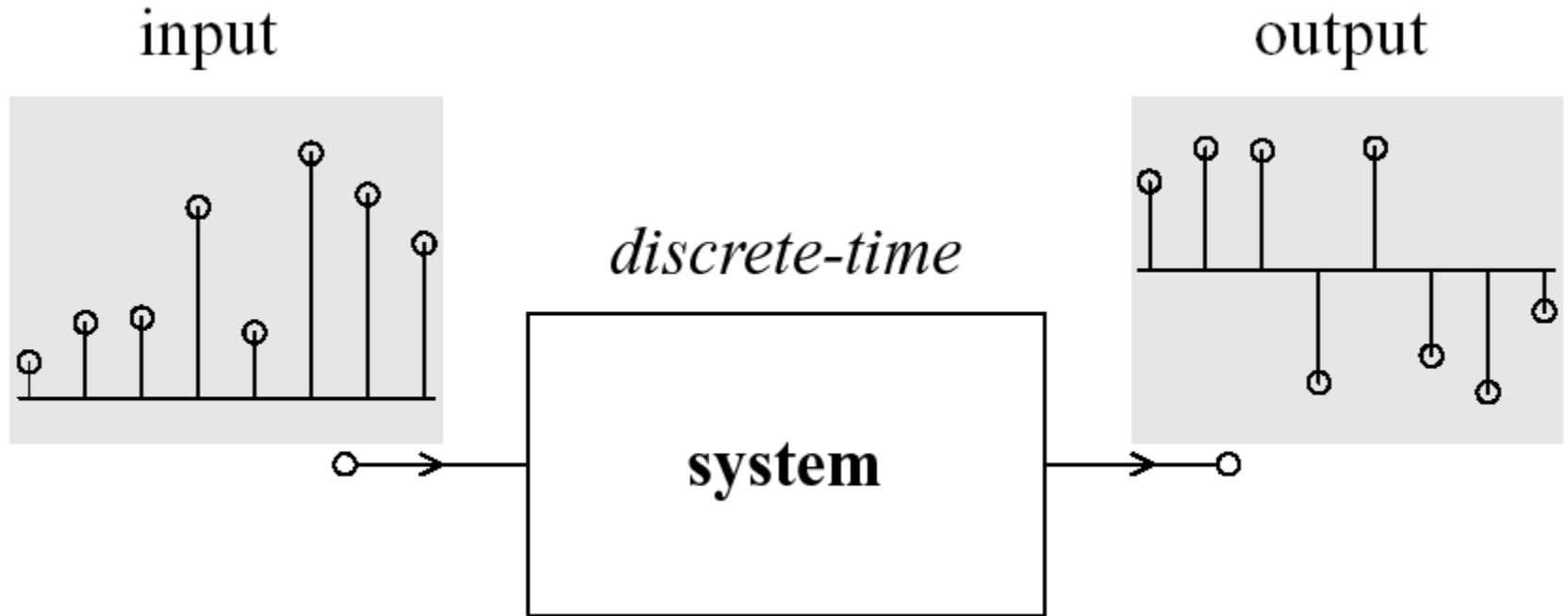
- System **analysis**: analyze the output signal when input signal and system is given.
- System **synthesis**: design the system when input and output signal is given.

Continuous-time system



Continuous-time system: the input and output signals are continuous time

Discrete-time system



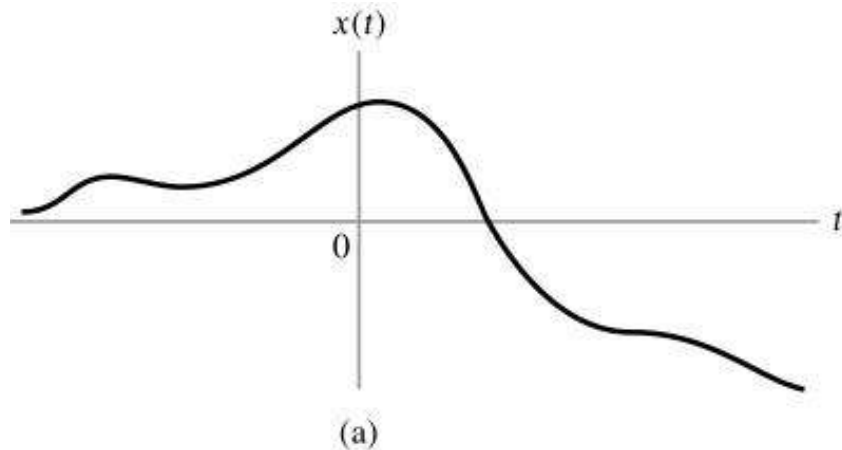
Discrete-time system has discrete-time input and output signals

Signal classification

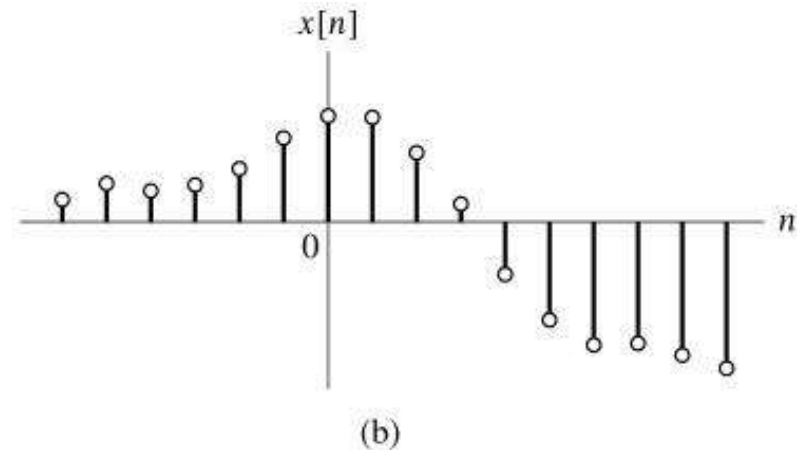
Signal classification	
Continous time	Discrete time
Even	Odd
Periodic	Nonperiodic/aperiodic
Deterministic	Random
Energy	Power

Continuous & discrete time signal

- $x(t)$ is defined for all time t .
- $x[n]$ is defined only at discrete instants of time.
- $x[n] = x(nT_s)$, $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$
- T_s : sampling period



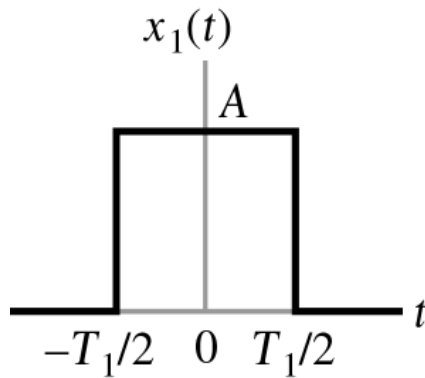
(a) Continuous-time signal $x(t)$.



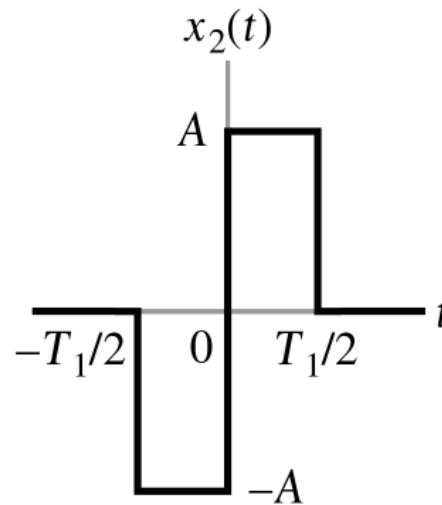
(b) Representation of $x(t)$ as a discrete-time signal $x[n]$.

Even & odd signal

- Even signal (symmetric about vertical axis)
 - $x(-t) = x(t)$ for all t .
- Odd signal (asymmetric about vertical axis)
 - $x(-t) = -x(t)$ for all t .



(a)



(b)

Even & odd signal (example)

- Consider the signal

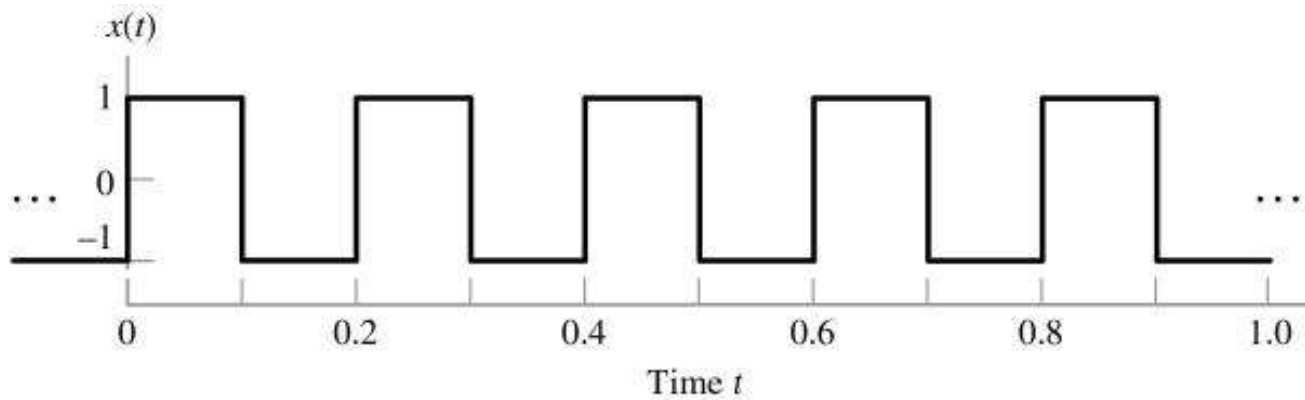
$$x(t) = \begin{cases} \sin\left(\frac{\pi t}{T}\right), & -T \leq t \leq T \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Is the signal $x(t)$ an even or an odd function of time t ?
- Clue: replace t with $-t$
- Answer: odd signal because $x(-t) = -x(t)$

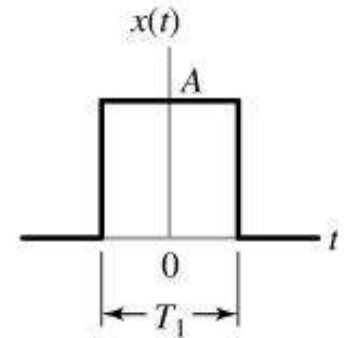
Periodic & nonperiodic signals

- Periodic signal
 - $x(t) = x(t+T)$, for all t
 - T = fundamental period
 - Fundamental frequency, $f = 1/T$ unit Hz
 - Angular frequency, $\omega = 2\pi f$ unit rad/s
- Nonperiodic signal
 - No value of T satisfies the condition above

- (a) Periodic signal
- (b) Nonperiodic signal



(a)

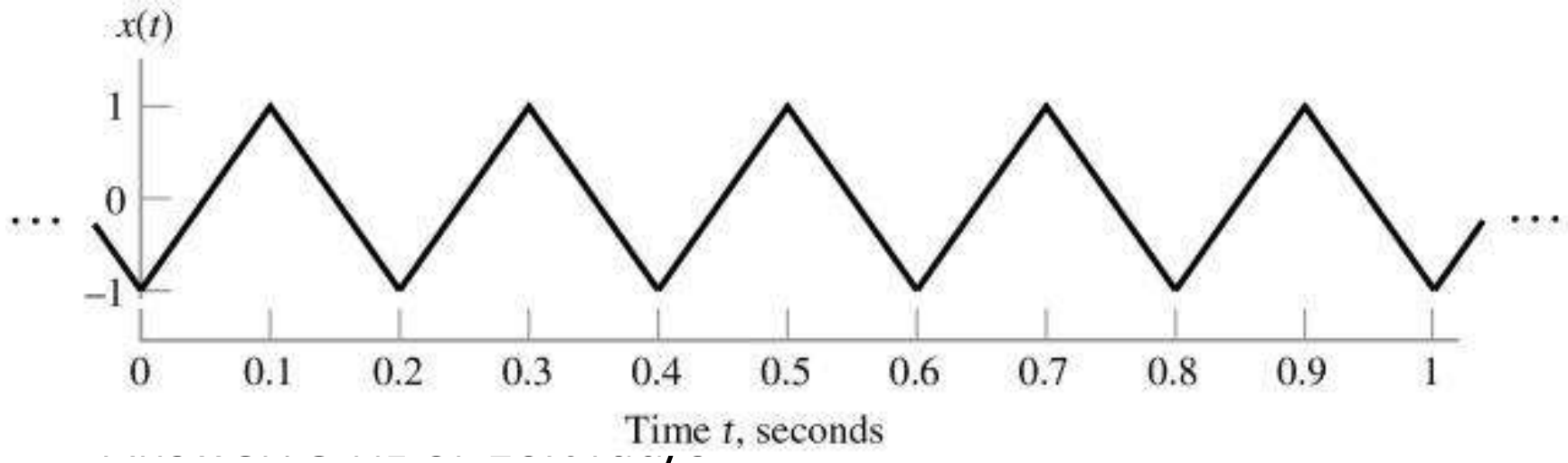


(b)

- For (a), find the amplitude and period of $x(t)$

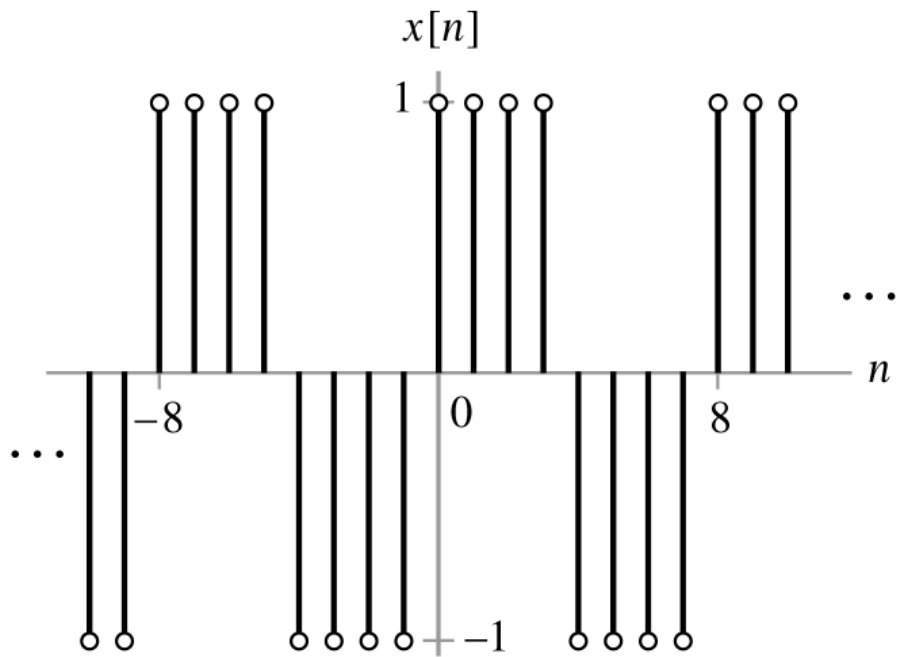
(example)

- What is the fundamental frequency of triangular wave below? Express the fundamental frequency in units of Hz and rad/s.

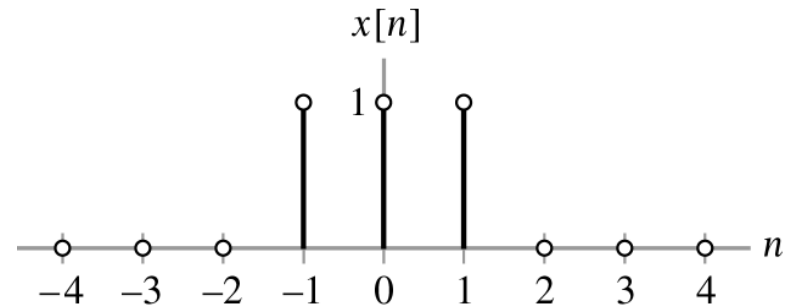


Periodic & nonperiodic signal for discrete time signal

- Periodic discrete time signal
 - $x[n] = x[n + N]$, for integer n



Periodic signal



Nonperiodic signal

- For each of the following signals, determine whether it is periodic, and if it is, find the fundamental period.

- $x(t) = \cos^2(2\pi t)$

- $x(t) = \sin^3(2t)$

- $x[n] = (-1)^n$

- $x[n] = \cos(2n)$

- $x[n] = \cos(2\pi n)$

$T = 0.5 \text{ s}$, $T = \pi \text{ s}$, $T = 2 \text{ sample}$, nonperiodic, $T = 1 \text{ sample}$

Deterministic & random signal

- Deterministic signal: there is no uncertainty with respect to its value at any time. *Specified function.*
- Random signal: there is uncertainty before it occurs.

Energy & power signals

- Energy signal; $0 < E < \infty$
- Power signal; $0 < P < \infty$

Continuous time signals

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt$$

$$P = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x^2(t) dt$$

Discrete time signals

$$E = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x^2[n]$$

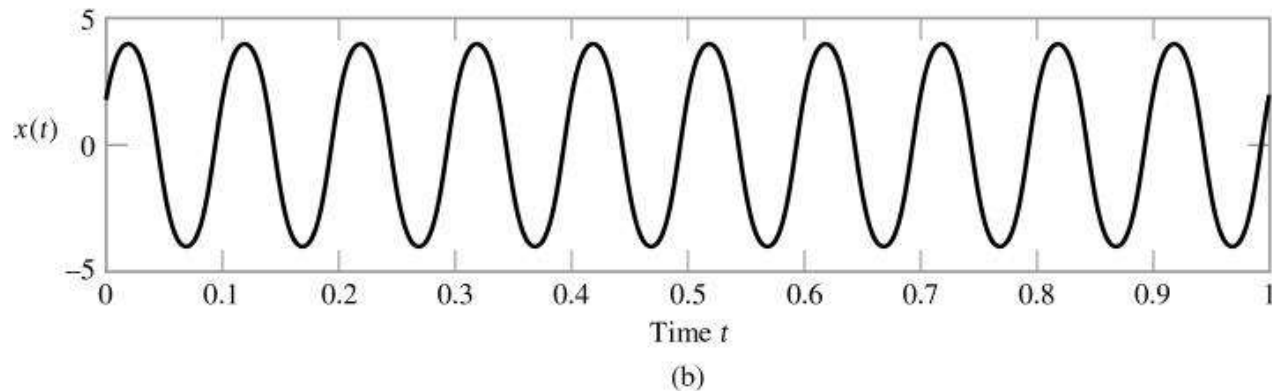
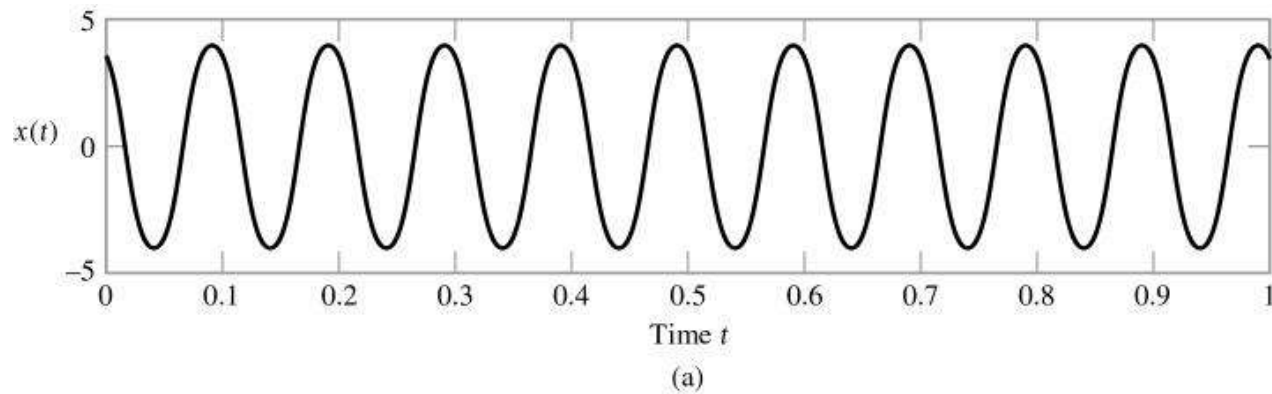
$$P = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^2[n]$$

Useful signal models

- Sinusoidal
- Exponential
- Unit step function
- Unit impulse function

Sinusoidal

- (a) Sinusoidal signal $A \cos(\omega t + \Phi)$ with phase $\Phi = +\pi/6$ radians.
(b) Sinusoidal signal $A \sin(\omega t + \Phi)$ with phase $\Phi = +\pi/6$ radians.



Exponential

$$x_e(t) = X_e e^{bt}$$

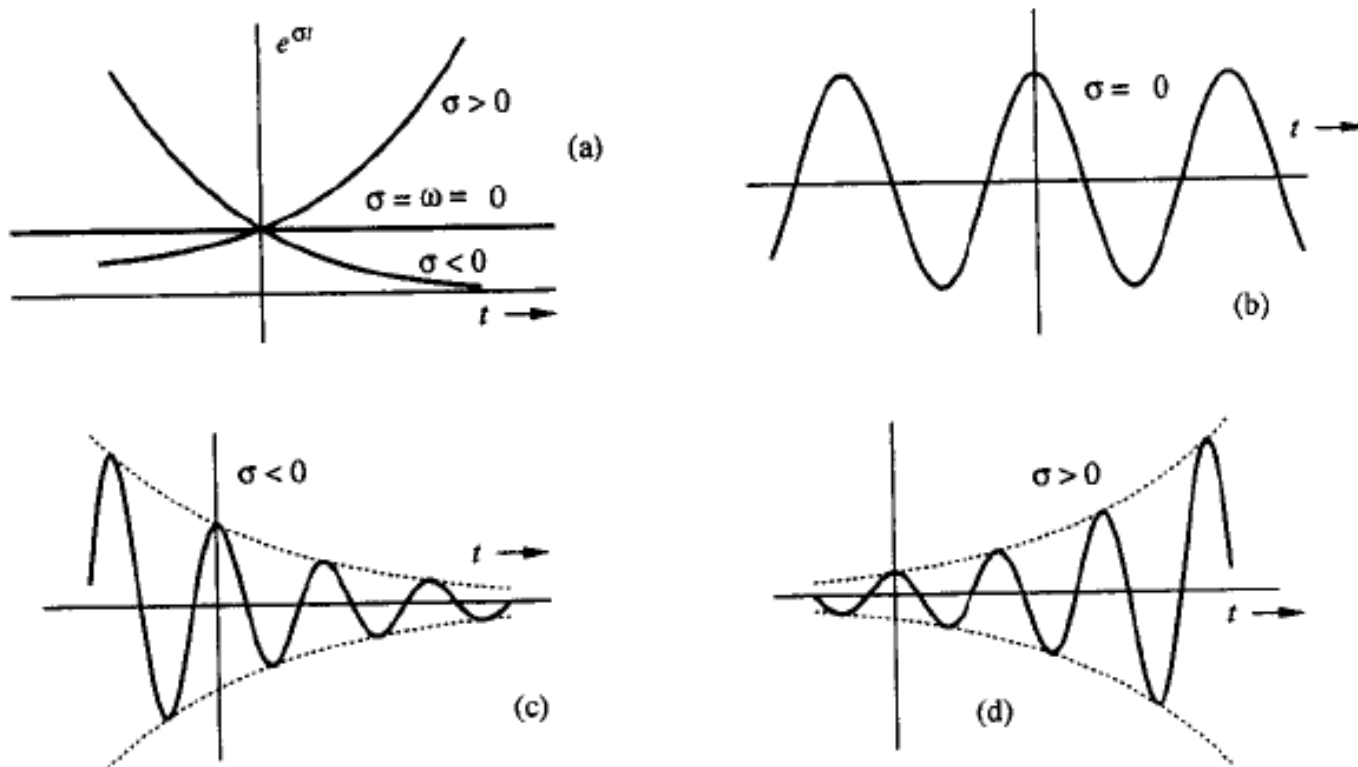
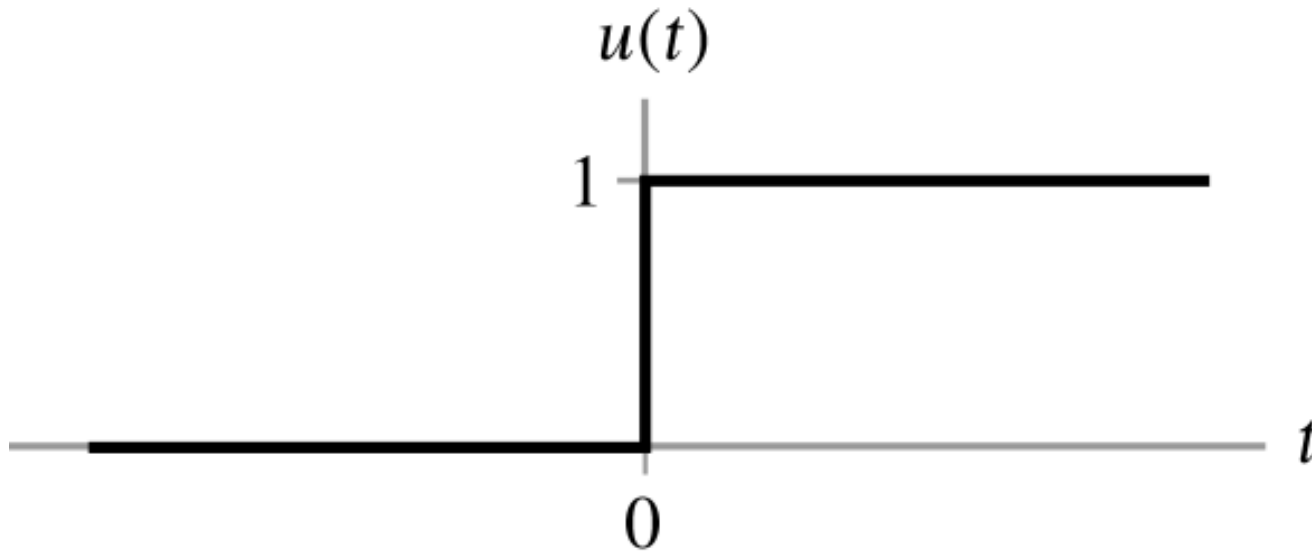


Fig. 1.21 Sinusoids of complex frequency $\sigma + j\omega$.

Unit step function

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t > 0 \\ 0, & t \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

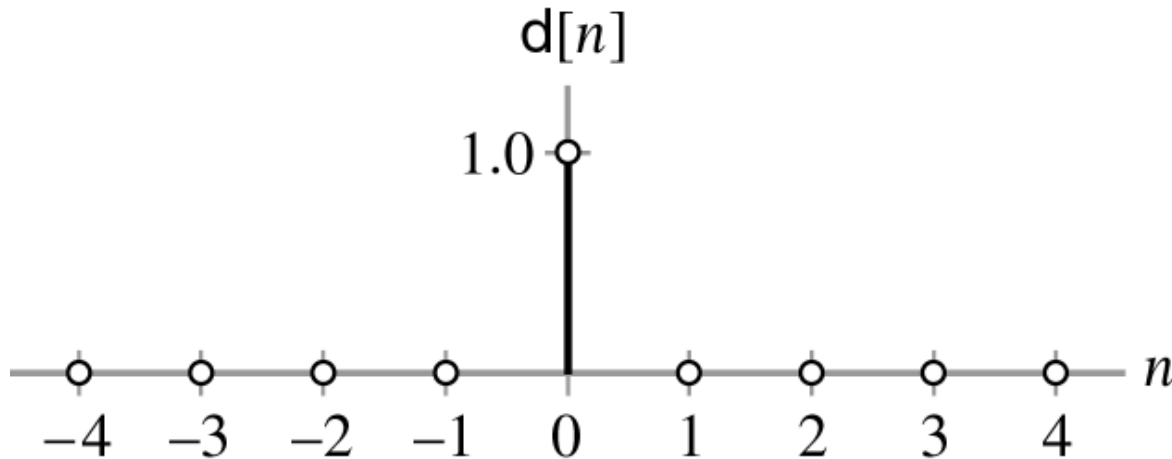


Unit impulse function

- Pulse signal =
$$p_{\varepsilon}(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\varepsilon}, & 0 < t \leq \varepsilon \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Unit impulse (Dirac delta) =
$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} p_{\varepsilon}(t) \quad \delta(t) = 0, \quad t \neq 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$$

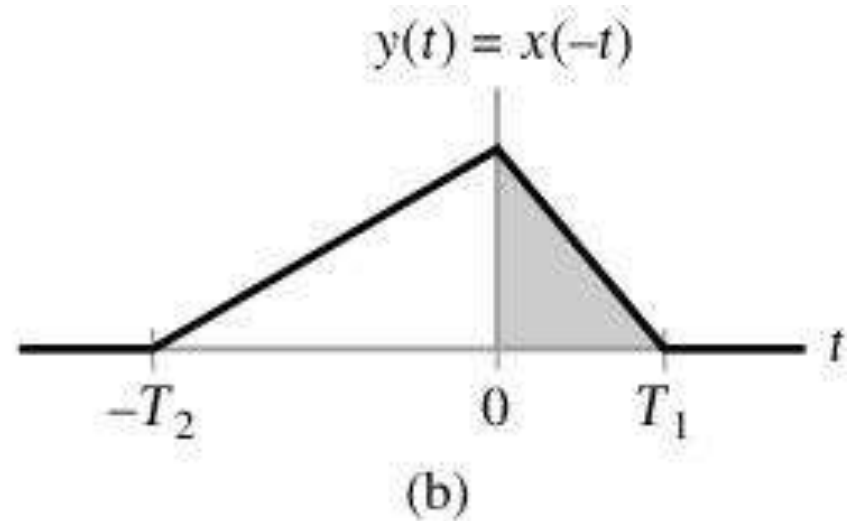
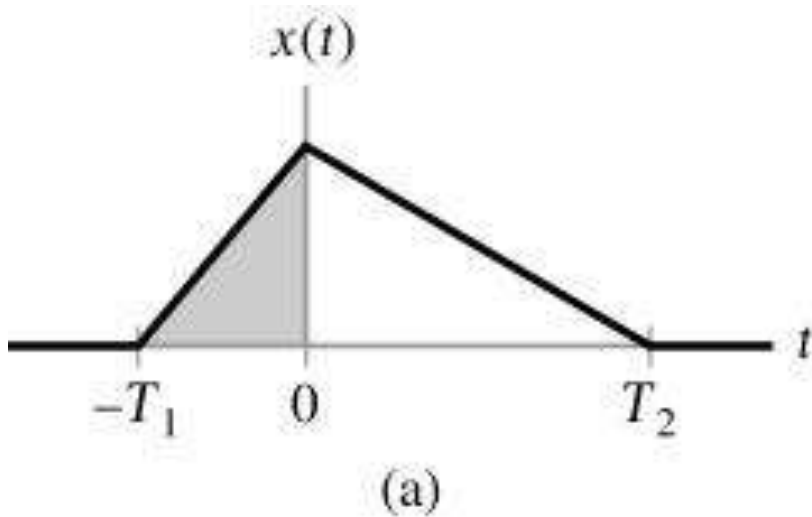


Operation on signal

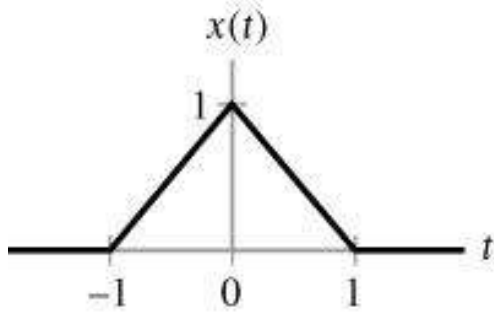
- Dependent variable: x , y , etc...
 - Multiplication
 - Addition
 - Subtraction
 - Integration
 - Differentiation
- Independent variable: (t) etc...
 - Time flip / reflection / time reverse
 - Time scale
 - Time shift

Time flip/reflection

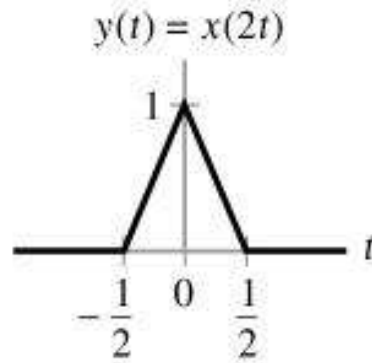
- Operation of reflection: (a) continuous-time signal $x(t)$ and (b) reflected version of $x(t)$ about the origin.



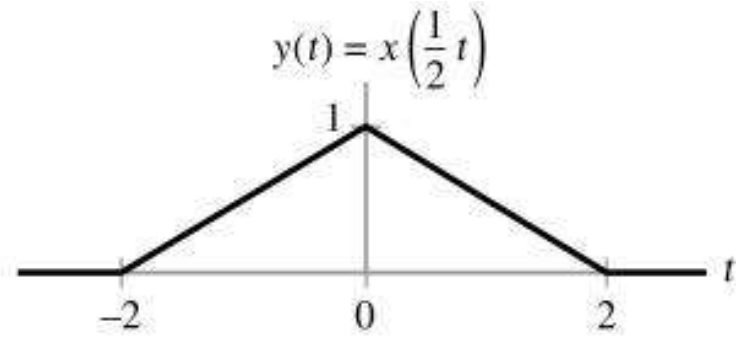
Time scale



(a)

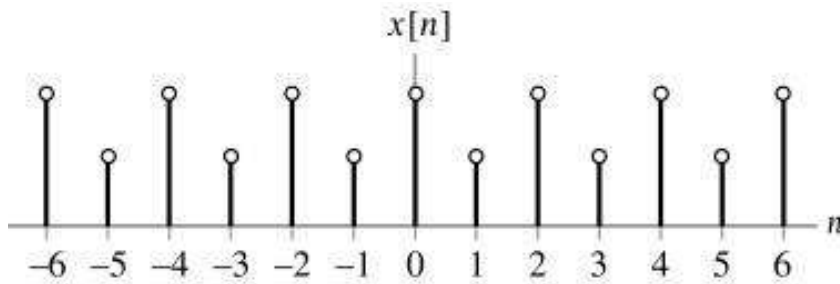


(b)

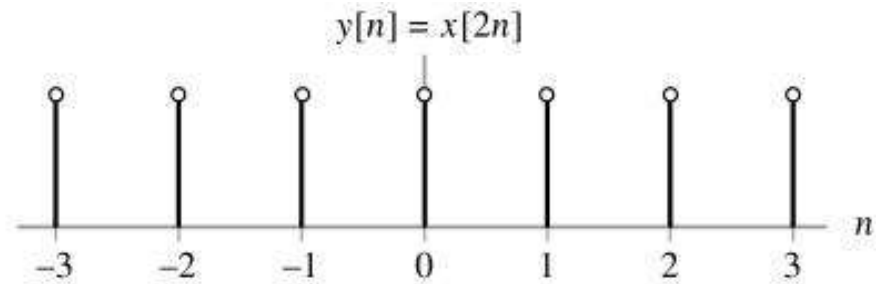


(c)

Time scale on continuous signal



(a)

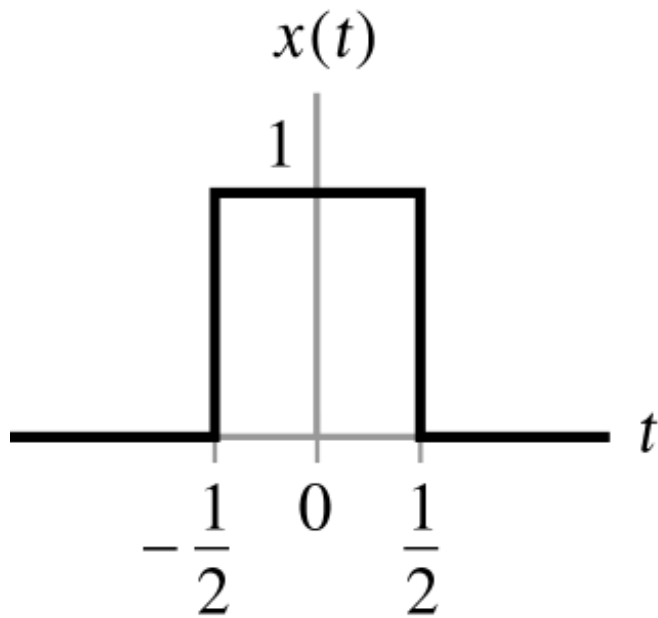


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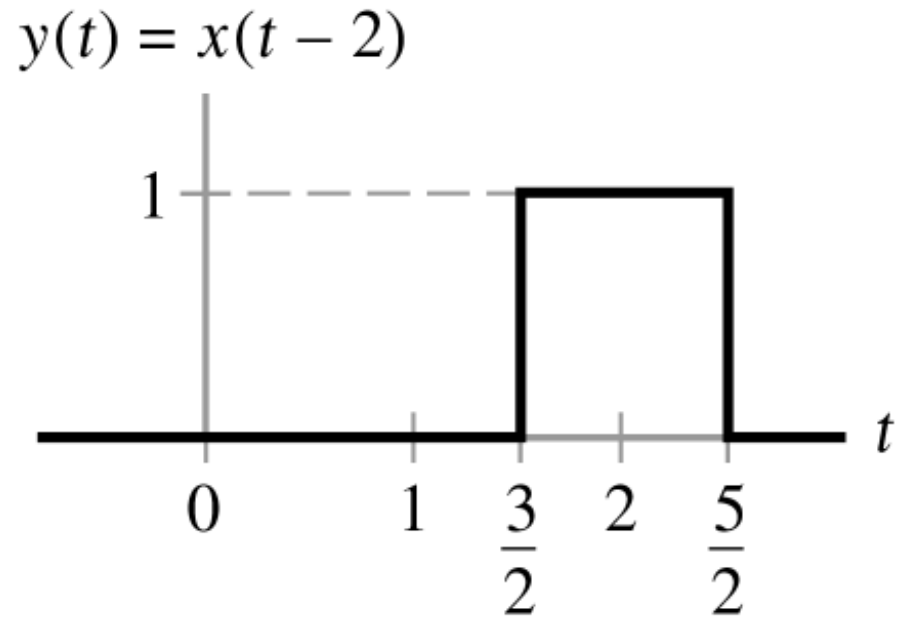
Time scale on discrete signal

Time shift

- Time-shifting operation: (a) continuous-time signal in the form of a rectangular pulse of amplitude 1.0 and duration 1.0, symmetric about the origin; and (b) time-shifted version of $x(t)$ by 2 time shifts.



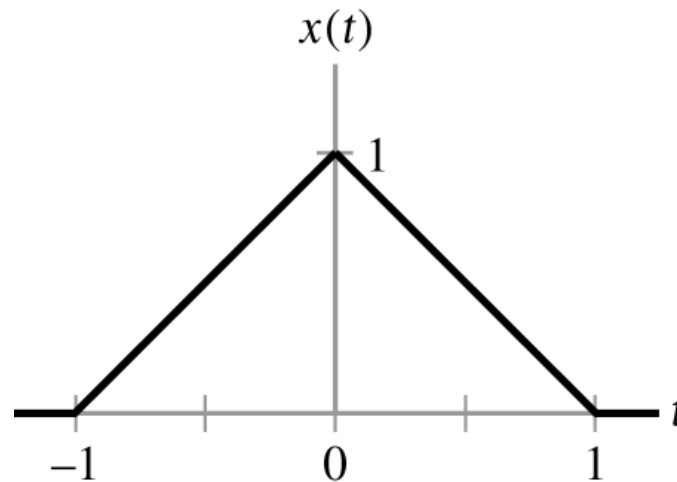
(a)



(b)

Exercise of signal operation

- Suppose $x(t)$ is a triangular signal



- Find

(a) $x(3t)$

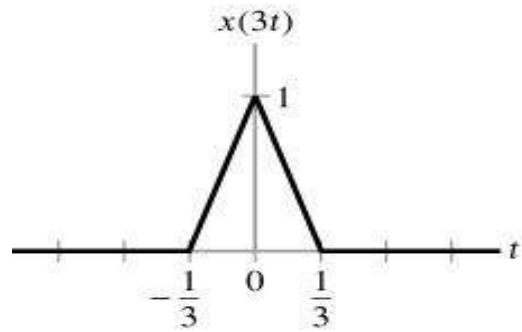
(b) $x(3t+2)$

(c) $x(-2t-1)$

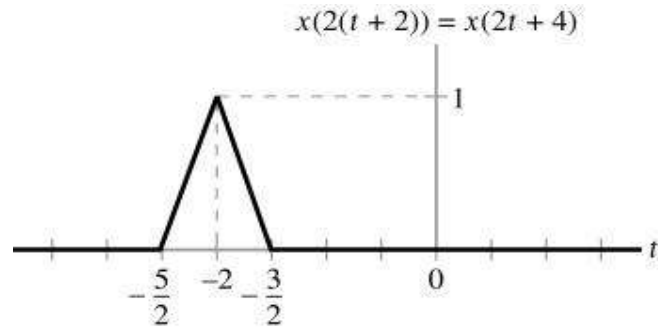
(d) $x(2(t+2))$

(e) $x(2(t-2))$

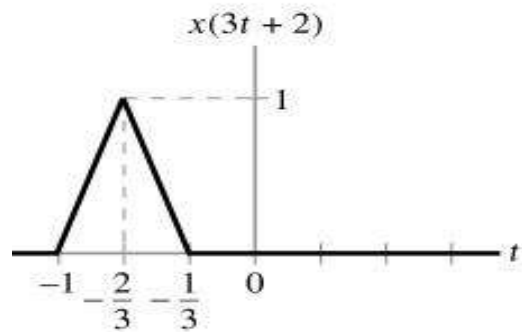
(f) $x(3t) + x(3t+2)$



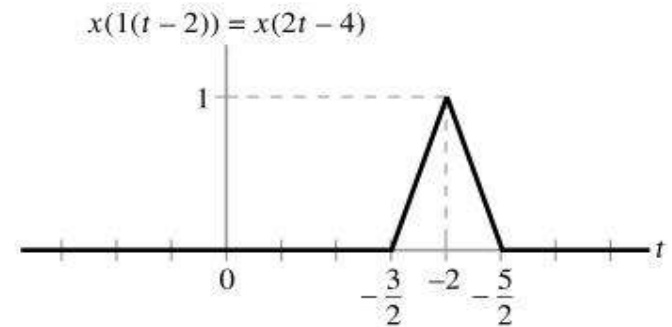
(a)



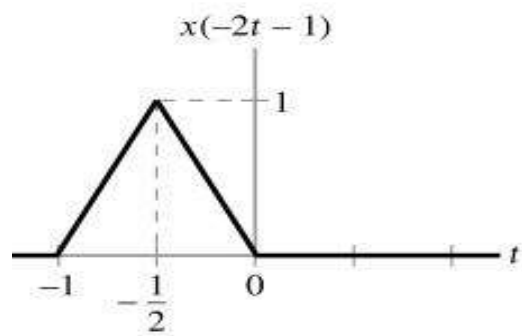
(d)



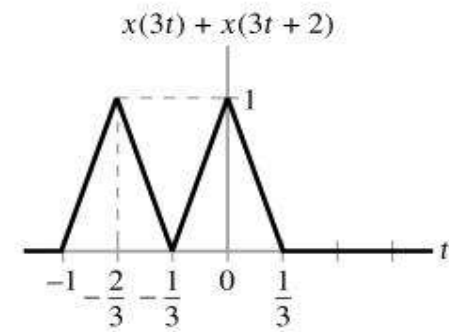
(b)



(e)



(c)



(f)

Properties of system

- Memory
- Stability
- Invertibility
- Causality
- Linearity
- Time-invariance

Memory vs. Memoryless Systems

- *Memoryless* (or *static*) Systems: System output $y(t)$ depends only on the input at time t , i.e. $y(t)$ is a function of $x(t)$.
- *Memory* (or *dynamic*) Systems: System output $y(t)$ depends on input at past or future of the current time t , i.e. $y(t)$ is a function of $x(\tau)$ where $-\infty < \tau < \infty$.
- Examples:
 - A resistor: $y(t) = R x(t)$
 - A capacitor: $y(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau$
 - A one unit delayer: $y[n] = x[n-1]$
 - An accumulator: $y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]$

Stability and Invertibility

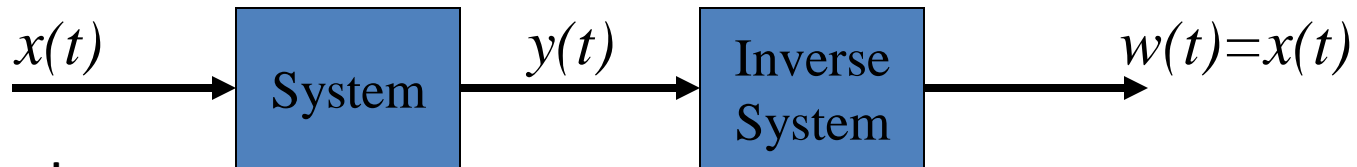
- **Stability:** A system is stable if it results in a bounded output for any bounded input, i.e. bounded-input/bounded-output (BIBO).

- If $|x(t)| < k_1$, then $|y(t)| < k_2$.

- Example:

$$y(t) = \int x(t) dt \quad y[n] = 100x[n]$$

- **Invertibility:** A system is invertible if distinct inputs result in distinct outputs. If a system is invertible, then there exists an “inverse” system which converts output of the original system to the original input.



- Examples:

$$y(t) = 4x(t)$$

$$w(t) = \frac{1}{4} y(t)$$

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

$$w[n] = y[n] - y[n-1]$$

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t x(t) dt$$

$$w(t) = \frac{dy(t)}{dt}$$

Causality

- A system is called *causal* if the output depends only on the present and past values of the input

Linearity

- A system is linear if it satisfies the properties:
 - It is *additivity*: $x(t) = x_1(t) + x_2(t) \rightarrow y(t) = y_1(t) + y_2(t)$
 - And it is *homogeneity* (or *scaling*): $x(t) = a x_1(t) \rightarrow y(t) = a y_1(t)$, for a any complex constant.
- The two properties can be combined into a single property:
 - Superposition:
 $x(t) = a x_1(t) + b x_2(t) \rightarrow y(t) = a y_1(t) + b y_2(t)$
 $x[n] = a x_1[n] + b x_2[n] \rightarrow y[n] = a y_1[n] + b y_2[n]$

Time-Invariance

- A system is time-invariant if a delay (or a time-shift) in the input signal causes the same amount of delay (or time-shift) in the output signal, i.e.:

$$x(t) = x_1(t-t_0) \rightarrow y(t) = y_1(t-t_0)$$

$$x[n] = x_1[n-n_0] \rightarrow y[n] = y_1[n-n_0]$$

Time and frequency domains

- Most analysis were done in frequency domain.
- Much more information can be extracted from a signal in frequency domain.
- To represent a signal in frequency domain, some method were introduced, the first one is
- **FOURIER SERIES...**

Z-Transform

Introduction

- *The Laplace Transform (s domain) is a valuable tool for representing, analyzing & designing continuous-time signals & systems.*
- *The z -transform is convenient yet invaluable tool for representing, analyzing & designing discrete-time signals & systems.*
- *The resulting transformation from s -domain to z -domain is called z -transform.*
- *The relation between s -plane and z -plane is described below :*
$$z = e^{sT}$$
- *The z -transform maps any point $s = \sigma + j\omega$ in the s -plane to z -plane ($r \angle \theta$).*

Z-Transform

For continuous-time signal,

$$x(t) \Leftrightarrow X(s)$$

Time Domain S-Domain

$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt$$

For discrete-time signal,

$$\int \Rightarrow \sum, \quad t \Rightarrow nT \Rightarrow \sum x(nT) e^{-sTn}$$

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

Time Domain Z-Domain $e^{sT} = z$

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

Causal System

where,

$$z = e^{sT}, \quad s = \sigma + j\omega, \quad T = \text{sampling time} = \frac{1}{f_s}$$

Z-Transform Definition

- *The z-transform of sequence $x(n)$ is defined by*

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

Two sided z transform
Bilateral z transform

➤ *For causal system*

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

One sided z transform
Unilateral z transform

- *The z transform reduces to the Discrete Time Fourier transform (DTFT) if $r=1$; $z = e^{j\omega}$.*

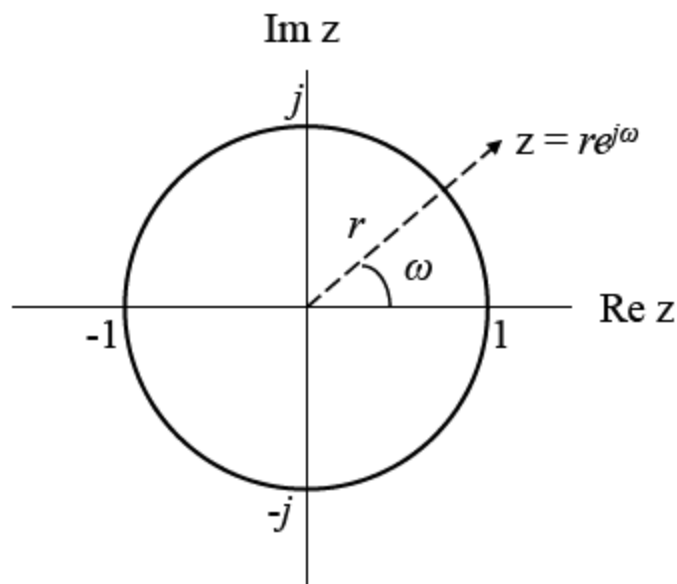


$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)e^{-j\omega n}$$

DTFT

Geometrical interpretation of z-transform

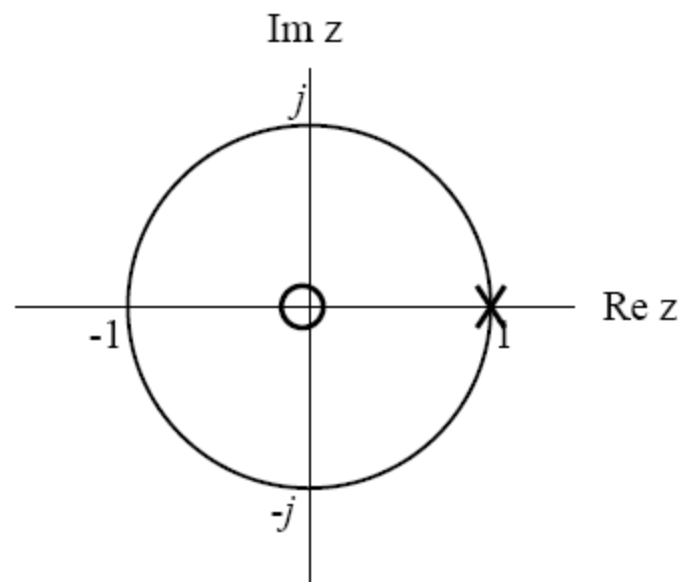
- *The point $z = re^{j\omega}$ is a vector of length r from origin and an angle ω with respect to real axis.*
- *Unit circle : The contour $|z| = 1$ is a circle on the z-plane with unity radius*



DTFT is to evaluate z-transform on a unit circle.

Pole-zero Plot

- *A graphical representation of z-transform on z-plane*
 - *Poles denote by “x” and*
 - *zeros denote by “o”*



Example

➤ Find the z-transform of, a) $\delta(n)$ b) $u(n)$

✓ Solution:

$$a) \mathcal{Z}\{\delta(n)\} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \delta(n)z^{-n} = \delta(0)z^{-0} = \delta(0) = 1$$

$$b) \mathcal{Z}\{u(n)\} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u(n)z^{-n} = 1 + z^{-1} + z^{-2} + \dots$$

It's a geometric sequence $a = 1$, $r = z^{-1}$, $n = \infty$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z}\{u(n)\} &= \frac{1 - z^{-\infty}}{1 - z^{-1}}, \quad |z| > 1 \\ &= \frac{z}{z - 1} \end{aligned}$$

Recall: Sum of a Geometric Sequence

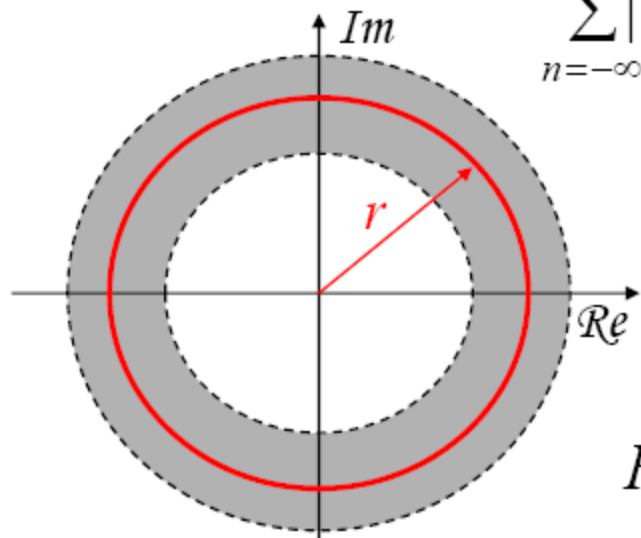
$$S = a \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r}$$

where, a: first term, r: common ratio,
n: number of terms

Region Of Convergence (ROC)

- ROC of $X(z)$ is the set of all values of z for which $X(z)$ attains a finite value.
- Give a sequence, *the set of values of z for which the z -transform converges, i.e., $|X(z)| < \infty$, is called the region of convergence.*

$$|X(z)| = \left| \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n} \right| = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)| |z|^{-n} < \infty$$
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)r^{-n}| < \infty$$



ROC is an annual ring centered on the origin.

$$R_{x-} < |z| < R_{x+}$$

$$ROC = \{z = re^{j\omega} \mid R_{x-} < r < R_{x+}\}$$

Ex. 1 Find the z-transform of the following sequence

$$x = \{2, -3, 7, 4, 0, 0, \dots\dots\dots\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]z^{-n} = 2 - 3z^{-1} + 7z^{-2} + 4z^{-3} \\ &= \frac{2z^3 - 3z^2 + 7z + 4}{z^3}, \quad |z| > 0 \end{aligned}$$

The ROC is the entire complex z - plane except the origin.

Ex. 2 Find the z-transform of $\delta[n]$

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n]z^{-n} = 1$$

with an ROC consisting of the entire z - plane.

Ex. 3 Find the z -transform of $\delta[n-1]$

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n-1] z^{-n} = z^{-1} = \frac{1}{z}$$

with an ROC consisting of the entire z -plane except $z = 0$.

Ex. 4 Find the z -transform of $\delta[n+1]$

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n+1] z^{-n} = z$$

with an ROC consisting of the entire z -plane except $z = \infty$,
i.e., there is a pole at infinity.

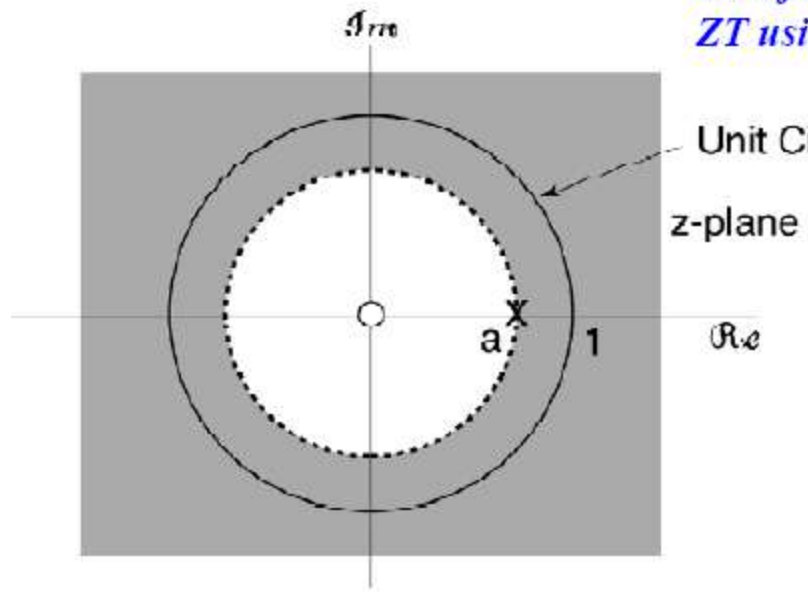
Ex.5 Find the z -transform of the following right-sided sequence (causal)

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

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

This form to find inverse ZT using PFE

This form to find pole and zero locations



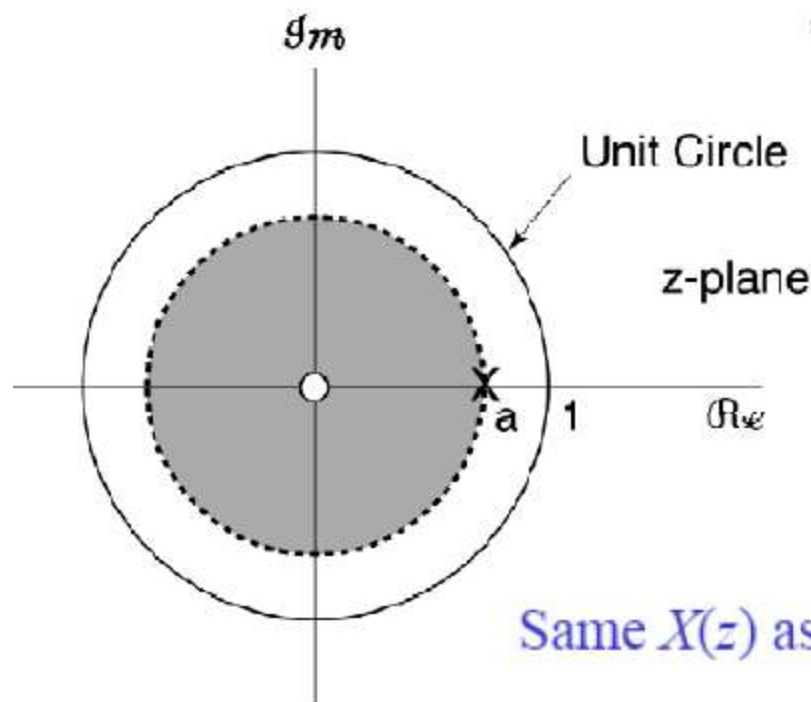
If $|az^{-1}| < 1$, i.e., $|z| > |a|$

That is, ROC $|z| > |a|$,
outside a circle

Ex.6 Find the z-transform of the following left-sided sequence

$$x[n] = -a^n u[-n - 1]$$

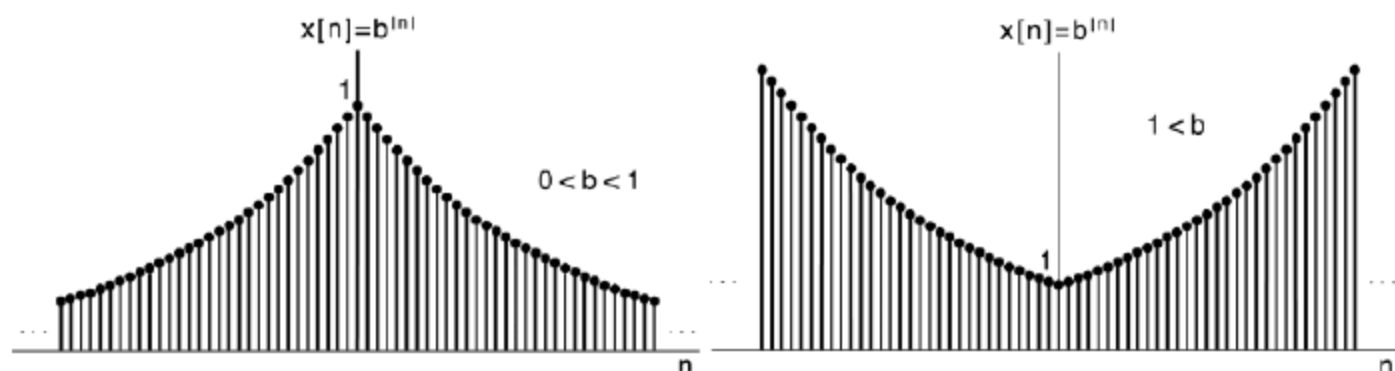
$$\begin{aligned} X(z) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \{-a^n u[-n - 1] z^{-n}\} = - \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} a^n z^{-n} \\ &= - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a^{-n} z^n = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a^{-1} z)^n \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{1 - a^{-1} z} = \frac{a^{-1} z}{a^{-1} z - 1} \\ &= \frac{z}{z - a}, \end{aligned}$$



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

Same $X(z)$ as in **Ex #1**, but different ROC.

Ex. 7 Find the z-transform of $x[n] = b^{|n|}$, $b > 0$



Rewriting $x[n]$ as a sum of left-sided and right-sided sequences and finding the corresponding z-transforms,

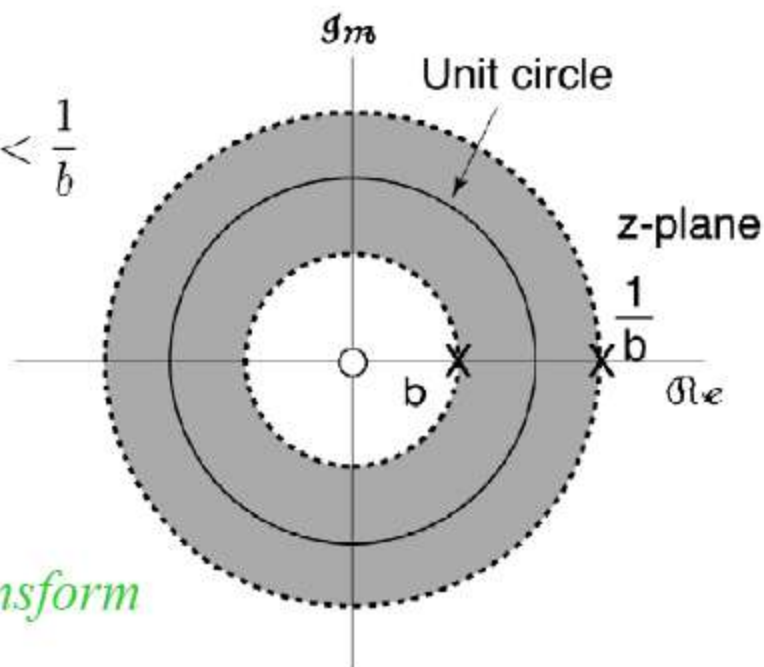
$$x[n] = b^n u[n] + b^{-n} u[-n - 1]$$

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - bz^{-1}} + \frac{-1}{1 - b^{-1}z^{-1}} \quad , \quad b < |z| < \frac{1}{b}$$

where

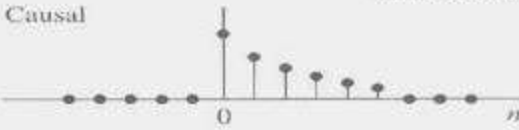






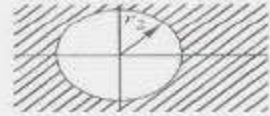




$$b^{-n}u[-n-1] \longleftrightarrow \frac{-1}{1 - b^{-1}z^{-1}}, \quad |z| < \frac{1}{b}$$

$$b^n u[n] \longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{1 - bz^{-1}}, \quad |z| > b$$



Notice from the ROC that the z-transform doesn't exist for $b > 1$

Characteristic Families of Signals with Their Corresponding ROC

Signal	ROC
Finite-Duration Signals	
<p>Causal</p> 	 <p>Entire z-plane except $z = 0$</p>
<p>Anticausal</p> 	 <p>Entire z-plane except $z = \infty$</p>
<p>Two-sided</p> 	 <p>Entire z-plane except $z = 0$ and $z = \infty$</p>
Infinite-Duration Signals	
<p>Causal</p> 	 <p>$z > r_2$</p>
<p>Anticausal</p> 	 <p>$z < r_1$</p>
<p>Two-sided</p> 	 <p>$r_2 < z < r_1$</p>

Properties of ROC

- *A ring or disk in the z -plane centered at the origin.*
- *The Fourier Transform of $x(n)$ is converge absolutely iff the ROC includes the unit circle.*
- *The ROC cannot include any poles*
- *Finite Duration Sequences: The ROC is the entire z -plane except possibly $z=0$ or $z=\infty$.*
- *Right sided sequences (causal seq.): The ROC extends outward from the outermost finite pole in $X(z)$ to $z=\infty$.*
- *Left sided sequences: The ROC extends inward from the innermost nonzero pole in $X(z)$ to $z=0$.*
- *Two-sided sequence: The ROC is a ring bounded by two circles passing through two pole with no poles inside the ring*

Properties of z-Transform

(1) *Linearity*: $ax[n] + by[n] \longleftrightarrow aX(z) + bY(z)$

(2) *Time Shifting* $x[n - n_0] \longleftrightarrow z^{-n_0}X(z),$

(3) *z-Domain Differentiation* $nx[n] \longleftrightarrow -z \frac{dX(z)}{dz},$

(4) *Z-scale Property*: $a^n x[n] \longleftrightarrow X\left(\frac{z}{a}\right)$

(5) *Time Reversal*: $x[-n] \longleftrightarrow X\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$

(6) *Convolution*: $h[n] * x[n] \longleftrightarrow H(z)X(z)$



Transfer
Function

Rational z -Transform

For most practical signals, the z -transform can be expressed as a ratio of two polynomials

$$X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = G \frac{(z - z_1)(z - z_2) \cdots (z - z_M)}{(z - p_1)(z - p_2) \cdots (z - p_N)}$$

where

G is scalar gain,

z_1, z_2, \dots, z_M are the *zeroes* of $X(z)$, i.e., the roots of the numerator polynomial

and p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N are the *poles* of $X(z)$, i.e., the roots of the denominator polynomial.

Commonly used z-Transform pairs

Sequence	z-Transform	ROC
$\delta[n]$	1	All values of z
$u[n]$	$\frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}$	$ z > 1$
$\alpha^n u[n]$	$\frac{1}{1-\alpha z^{-1}}$	$ z > \alpha $
$n\alpha^n u[n]$	$\frac{\alpha z^{-1}}{(1-\alpha z^{-1})^2}$	$ z > \alpha $
$(n+1)\alpha^n u[n]$	$\frac{1}{(1-\alpha z^{-1})^2}$	$ z > \alpha $
$(r^n \cos \omega_0 n) u[n]$	$\frac{1-(r \cos \omega_0)z^{-1}}{1-(2r \cos \omega_0)z^{-1}+r^2 z^{-2}}$	$ z > r $
$(r^n \sin \omega_0 n) [n]$	$\frac{1-(r \sin \omega_0)z^{-1}}{1-(2r \cos \omega_0)z^{-1}+r^2 z^{-2}}$	$ z > r $

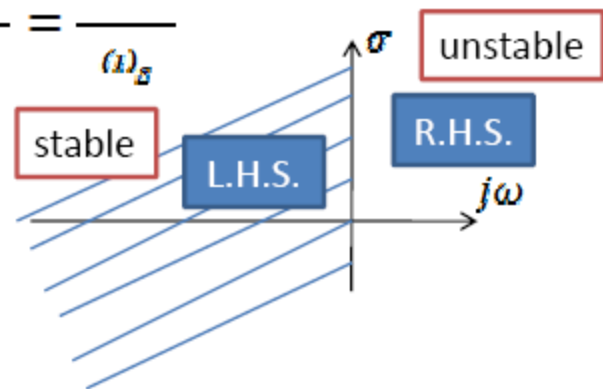
Z-Transform & pole-zero distribution & Stability considerations

$$\because s = \sigma + j\omega$$

$$\therefore z = e^{sT} = e^{(\sigma + j\omega)T} = e^{\sigma T} e^{j\omega T}$$

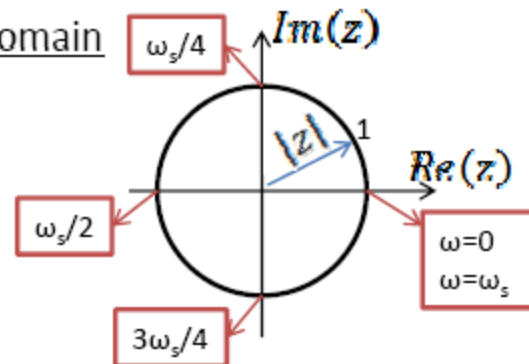
$$\text{Thus, } |z| = e^{\sigma T} \text{ \& } \underline{\text{ang}(z)} = \omega T = \frac{2\pi f}{f_s} = \frac{2\pi\omega}{\omega_s}$$

❖ Mapping between S-plane & Z-plane is done as follows:



1) Mapping of Poles on the $j\omega$ -axis of the s-domain to the z-domain

Maps to a unit circle & represents Marginally stable terms

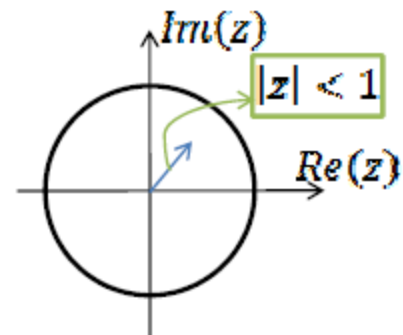


Z-Transform & pole-zero distribution & Stability considerations – cont.

2) Mapping of Poles in the L.H.S. of the s-plane to the z-plane

$$z = e^{\sigma T} e^{j\omega T}, \quad \sigma < 0$$

Maps to inside the unit circle & represents stable terms & the system is stable.



3) Mapping of Poles in the R.H.S. of the s-plane to the z-plane

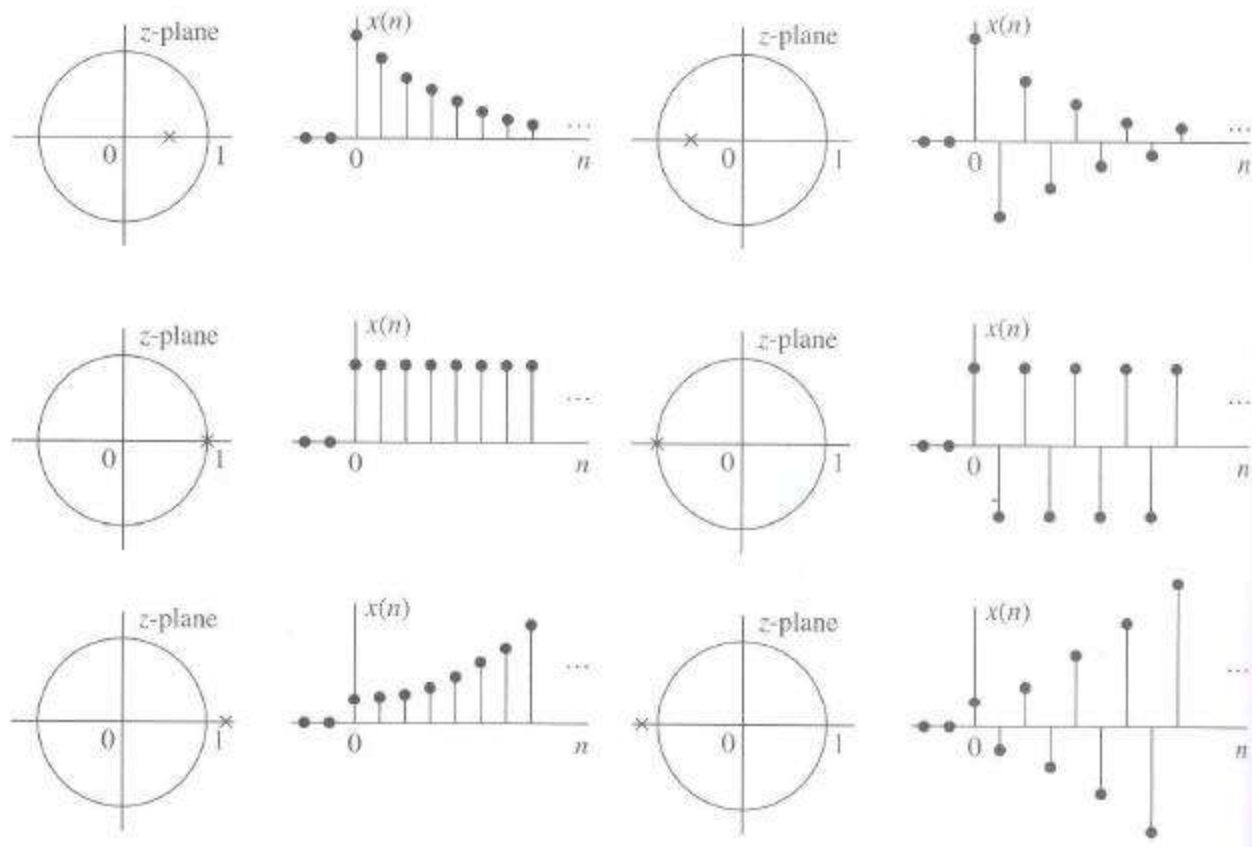
$$z = e^{\sigma T} e^{j\omega T}, \quad \sigma > 0$$

Outside the unit circle & represents unstable terms.

➤ Discrete Systems Stability Testing Steps

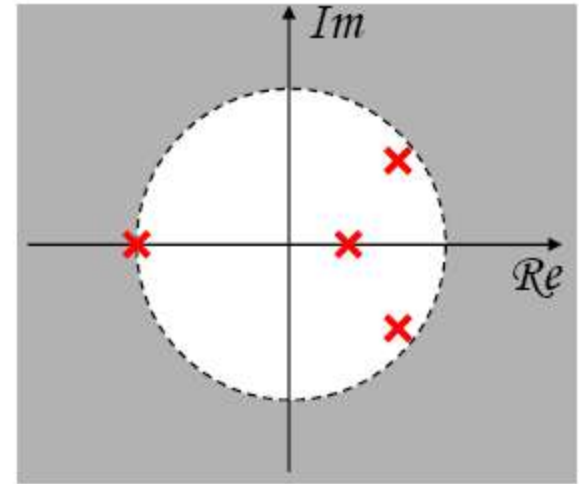
- 1) Find the pole positions of the z-transform.
- 2) If any pole is on or outside the unit circle. (Unless coincides with zero on the unit circle) → The system is unstable.

Pole Location and Time-domain Behavior of Causal Signals



Stable and Causal Systems

Causal Systems : ROC extends outward from the outermost pole.



Stable Systems : ROC includes the unit circle.

*A stable system requires that its **Fourier transform** is uniformly convergent.*

