

# EENG 479 : Digital Signal Processing (DSP)

## Lecture #8: Chapter 6 : Inverse Z Transform

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# Table 6.1: Commonly Used z-Transform Pairs

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

# Inverse z-Transform

An alternative approach to the implementation of the convolution sum is :

to form the product of the z-transforms of the individual sequences being convolved and then evaluating the inverse z-transform of the product.

In many applications this approach is more convenient as it leads to a closed form answer

Thus how to compute inverse z transform

- (1) Cauchy's Residue Theorem
- (2) Table Look Up Method
- (3) Partial Fraction Method
- (4) Long Division

**General Expression:** Recall that, for  $z = r e^{j\omega}$ , the  $z$ -transform  $G(z)$  given by

$$G(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g[n] z^{-n} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g[n] r^{-n} e^{-j\omega n}$$

is merely the DTFT of the modified sequence  $g[n] r^{-n}$

Accordingly, the inverse DTFT is thus given by

$$g[n] r^{-n} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} G(r e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega$$

By making a change of variable  $z = r e^{j\omega}$ , the previous equation can be converted into a contour integral given by

$$g[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_{C'} G(z) z^{n-1} dz$$

where  $C'$  is a counterclockwise contour of integration defined by  $|z| = r$

But the integral remains unchanged when is replaced with any contour  $C$  encircling the point  $z = 0$  in the ROC of  $G(z)$

The contour integral can be evaluated using the Cauchy's residue theorem resulting in

$$g[n] = \sum \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{residues of } G(z)z^{n-1} \\ \text{at the poles inside } C \end{array} \right]$$

The above equation needs to be evaluated at all values of  $n$  and is not pursued here

As it is difficult to arrive to close form for it. Thus other methods are used

A rational  $z$ -transform  $G(z)$  with a causal inverse transform  $g[n]$  has an ROC that is exterior to a circle

Here it is more convenient to express  $G(z)$  in a partial-fraction expansion form and then determine  $g[n]$  by summing the inverse transform of the individual simpler terms in the expansion

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Look up tables and recognition

$$X(z) = e^{a/z}, \quad |z| > 0$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left(\frac{a}{z}\right)^k}{k!} \Rightarrow x_n = \frac{a^n}{n!} u_n$$

$$X(z) = \log(1 - az^{-1}) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n} z^{-n}, \quad |z| > |a|$$

$$\Downarrow \\ x_n = -\frac{a^n}{n} u_{n-1}$$

# Inverse Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

- A rational  $G(z)$  can be expressed as

$$G(z) = \frac{P(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^M p_i z^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^N d_i z^{-i}}$$

- If  $M \geq N$  then  $G(z)$  can be re-expressed as

$$G(z) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{M-N} \eta_{\ell} z^{-\ell} + \frac{P_1(z)}{D(z)}$$

where the degree of  $P_1(z)$  is less than  $N$

- The rational function  $P_1(z)/D(z)$  is called a **proper fraction**

- Example - Consider

$$G(z) = \frac{2 + 0.8z^{-1} + 0.5z^{-2} + 0.3z^{-3}}{1 + 0.8z^{-1} + 0.2z^{-2}}$$

- By long division we arrive at

$$G(z) = -3.5 + 1.5z^{-1} + \frac{5.5 + 2.1z^{-1}}{1 + 0.8z^{-1} + 0.2z^{-2}}$$

Reminder

- The rational function  $P_1(z)/D(z)$  is called a **proper fraction**



- **Simple Poles:** In most practical cases, the rational  $z$ -transform of interest  $G(z)$  is a proper fraction with simple poles
- Let the poles of  $G(z)$  be at  $z = \lambda_k, 1 \leq k \leq N$
- A partial-fraction expansion of  $G(z)$  is then of the form

$$G(z) = \sum_{\ell=1}^N \left( \frac{\rho_{\ell}}{1 - \lambda_{\ell} z^{-1}} \right)$$

- The constants  $\rho_{\ell}$  in the partial-fraction expansion are called the **residues** and are given by

$$\rho_{\ell} = (1 - \lambda_{\ell} z^{-1}) G(z) \Big|_{z=\lambda_{\ell}}$$

- Each term of the sum in partial-fraction expansion has an ROC given by  $|z| > |\lambda_{\ell}|$  and, thus has an inverse transform of the form  $\rho_{\ell} (\lambda_{\ell})^n \mu[n]$

- Therefore, the inverse transform  $g[n]$  of  $G(z)$  is given by

$$g[n] = \sum_{\ell=1}^N \rho_{\ell} (\lambda_{\ell})^n \mu[n]$$

- **Example** - Let the  $z$ -transform  $H(z)$  of a causal sequence  $h[n]$  be given by

$$H(z) = \frac{z(z+2)}{(z-0.2)(z+0.6)} = \frac{1+2z^{-1}}{(1-0.2z^{-1})(1+0.6z^{-1})}$$

- A partial-fraction expansion of  $H(z)$  is then of the form

$$H(z) = \frac{\rho_1}{1-0.2z^{-1}} + \frac{\rho_2}{1+0.6z^{-1}}$$

- Now

$$\rho_1 = (1-0.2z^{-1})H(z)\Big|_{z=0.2} = \frac{1+2z^{-1}}{1+0.6z^{-1}}\Big|_{z=0.2} = 2.75$$

and

$$\rho_2 = (1+0.6z^{-1})H(z)\Big|_{z=-0.6} = \frac{1+2z^{-1}}{1-0.2z^{-1}}\Big|_{z=-0.6} = -1.75$$

- Hence

$$H(z) = \frac{2.75}{1-0.2z^{-1}} - \frac{1.75}{1+0.6z^{-1}}$$

- The inverse transform of the above is therefore given by

$$h[n] = 2.75(0.2)^n \mu[n] - 1.75(-0.6)^n \mu[n]$$

# Inverse Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion

- **Multiple Poles:** If  $G(z)$  has multiple poles, the partial-fraction expansion is of slightly different form
- Let the pole at  $z = v$  be of multiplicity  $L$  and the remaining  $N - L$  poles be simple and at  $z = \lambda_\ell$ ,  $1 \leq \ell \leq N - L$
- Then the partial-fraction expansion of  $G(z)$  is of the form

$$G(z) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{M-N} \eta_\ell z^{-\ell} + \sum_{\ell=1}^{N-L} \frac{\rho_\ell}{1 - \lambda_\ell z^{-1}} + \sum_{i=1}^L \frac{\gamma_i}{(1 - v z^{-1})^i}$$

where the constants  $\gamma_i$  are computed using

$$\gamma_i = \frac{1}{(L-i)!(-v)^{L-i}} \frac{d^{L-i}}{d(z^{-1})^{L-i}} \left[ (1 - v z^{-1})^L G(z) \right]_{z=v}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq L$$

- The residues  $\rho_\ell$  are calculated as before

# Inverse z-Transform via Long Division

- The z-transform  $G(z)$  of a causal sequence  $\{g[n]\}$  can be expanded in a power series in  $z^{-1}$
- In the series expansion, the coefficient multiplying the term  $z^{-n}$  is then the  $n$ -th sample  $g[n]$
- For a rational z-transform expressed as a ratio of polynomials in  $z^{-1}$ , the power series expansion can be obtained by long division

- Example - Consider

$$H(z) = \frac{1 + 2z^{-1}}{1 + 0.4z^{-1} - 0.12z^{-2}}$$

- Long division of the numerator by the denominator yields

$$H(z) = 1 + 1.6z^{-1} - 0.52z^{-2} + 0.4z^{-3} - 0.2224z^{-4} + \dots$$

- As a result

$$\{h[n]\} = \{1 \quad 1.6 \quad -0.52 \quad 0.4 \quad -0.2224 \quad \dots\}, \quad n \geq 0$$

- $[r, p, k] = \text{residuez}(\text{num}, \text{den})$   
develops the partial-fraction expansion of a rational  $z$ -transform with numerator and denominator coefficients given by vectors  $\text{num}$  and  $\text{den}$
- Vector  $r$  contains the residues
- Vector  $p$  contains the poles
- Vector  $k$  contains the constants  $\eta_\ell$

- $[\text{num}, \text{den}] = \text{residuez}(r, p, k)$   
converts a  $z$ -transform expressed in a partial-fraction expansion form to its rational form

- The function  $\text{impz}$  can be used to find the inverse of a rational  $z$ -transform  $G(z)$
- The function computes the coefficients of the power series expansion of  $G(z)$
- The number of coefficients can either be user specified or determined automatically

```
%Program 6_3
% Partial-Fraction Expansion of Rational z-Transform
%
num = input('Type in numerator coefficients = ');
den = input('Type in denominator coefficients = ');
[r,p,k] = residuez(num,den);
disp('Residues');disp(r')
disp('Poles');disp(p')
disp('Constants');disp(k)
```

```
% Program 6_4
% Partial-Fraction Expansion to Rational z-Transform
%
r = input('Type in the residues = ');
p = input('Type in the poles = ');
k = input('Type in the constants = ');
[num, den] = residuez(r,p,k);
disp('Numerator polynomial coefficients'); disp(num)
disp('Denominator polynomial coefficients'); disp(den)
```

```
% Program 6_5
% Power Series Expansion of a Rational z-Transform
%
% Read in the number of inverse z-transform coefficients to be computed
L = input('Type in the length of output vector = ');
% Read in the numerator and denominator coefficients of
% the z-transform
num = input('Type in the numerator coefficients = ');
den = input('Type in the denominator coefficients = ');
% Compute the desired number of inverse transform coefficients
[y,t] = impz(num,den,L);
disp('Coefficients of the power series expansion');
disp(y')
```

# Table 6.2: z-Transform Properties

Property	Sequence	z -Transform	ROC
	$g[n]$ $h[n]$	$G(z)$ $H(z)$	$\mathcal{R}_g$ $\mathcal{R}_h$
Conjugation	$g^*[n]$	$G^*(z^*)$	$\mathcal{R}_g$
Time-reversal	$g[-n]$	$G(1/z)$	$1/\mathcal{R}_g$
Linearity	$\alpha g[n] + \beta h[n]$	$\alpha G(z) + \beta H(z)$	Includes $\mathcal{R}_g \cap \mathcal{R}_h$
Time-shifting	$g[n - n_0]$	$z^{-n_0} G(z)$	$\mathcal{R}_g$ , except possibly the point $z = 0$ or $\infty$
Multiplication by an exponential sequence	$\alpha^n g[n]$	$G(z/\alpha)$	$ \alpha \mathcal{R}_g$
Differentiation of $G(z)$	$ng[n]$	$-z \frac{dG(z)}{dz}$	$\mathcal{R}_g$ , except possibly the point $z = 0$ or $\infty$
Convolution	$g[n] \otimes h[n]$	$G(z)H(z)$	Includes $\mathcal{R}_g \cap \mathcal{R}_h$
Modulation	$g[n]h[n]$	$\frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C G(v)H(z/v)v^{-1} dv$	Includes $\mathcal{R}_g \mathcal{R}_h$
Parseval's relation		$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g[n]h^*[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C G(v)H^*(1/v^*)v^{-1} dv$	

Note: If  $\mathcal{R}_g$  denotes the region  $R_{g-} < |z| < R_{g+}$  and  $\mathcal{R}_h$  denotes the region  $R_{h-} < |z| < R_{h+}$ , then  $1/\mathcal{R}_g$  denotes the region  $1/R_{g+} < |z| < 1/R_{g-}$  and  $\mathcal{R}_g \mathcal{R}_h$  denotes the region  $R_{g-} R_{h-} < |z| < R_{g+} R_{h+}$ .



# LTI Discrete-Time Systems in the Transform Domain

- An LTI discrete-time system is completely characterized in the time-domain by its impulse response sequence  $\{h[n]\}$
- Thus, the transform-domain representation of a discrete-time signal can also be equally applied to the transform-domain representation of an LTI discrete-time system

# LTI Discrete-Time Systems in the Transform Domain

- Such transform-domain representations provide additional insight into the behavior of such systems
- It is easier to design and implement these systems in the transform-domain for certain applications
- We consider now the use of the DTFT and the  $z$ -transform in developing the transform-domain representations of an LTI system

# Finite-Dimensional LTI Discrete-Time Systems

- In this course we shall be concerned with LTI discrete-time systems characterized by linear constant coefficient difference equations of the form:

$$\sum_{k=0}^N d_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M p_k x[n-k]$$

# Finite-Dimensional LTI Discrete-Time Systems

- Applying the  $z$ -transform to both sides of the difference equation and making use of the linearity and the time-invariance properties of **Table 6.2** we arrive at

$$\sum_{k=0}^N d_k z^{-k} Y(z) = \sum_{k=0}^M p_k z^{-k} X(z)$$

where  $Y(z)$  and  $X(z)$  denote the  $z$ -transforms of  $y[n]$  and  $x[n]$  with associated ROCs, respectively

# Finite-Dimensional LTI Discrete-Time Systems

- A more convenient form of the  $z$ -domain representation of the difference equation is given by

$$\left( \sum_{k=0}^N d_k z^{-k} \right) Y(z) = \left( \sum_{k=0}^M p_k z^{-k} \right) X(z)$$

# The Transfer Function

- A generalization of the frequency response function
- The convolution sum description of an LTI discrete-time system with an impulse response  $h[n]$  is given by

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

- Taking the  $z$ -transforms of both sides we get

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

- Or, 
$$Y(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] \underbrace{\left( \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} x[l]z^{-l} \right)}_{X(z)} z^{-k}$$

- Therefore, 
$$Y(z) = \underbrace{\left( \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k]z^{-k} \right)}_{H(z)} X(z)$$

- Thus,

$$Y(z) = H(z)X(z)$$

- Consider an LTI discrete-time system characterized by a difference equation

$$\sum_{k=0}^N d_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M p_k x[n-k]$$

- Its transfer function is obtained by taking the  $z$ -transform of both sides of the above equation

- Thus

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M p_k z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N d_k z^{-k}}$$

- Or, equivalently as

$$H(z) = z^{(N-M)} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M p_k z^{M-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N d_k z^{N-k}}$$

- An alternate form of the transfer function is given by

$$H(z) = \frac{p_0}{d_0} \cdot \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (1 - \xi_k z^{-1})}{\prod_{k=1}^N (1 - \lambda_k z^{-1})}$$

- Or, equivalently as

$$H(z) = \frac{p_0}{d_0} z^{(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - \xi_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - \lambda_k)}$$

- $\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_M$  are the finite **zeros**, and  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N$  are the finite **poles** of  $H(z)$
- If  $N > M$ , there are additional  $(N - M)$  zeros at  $z = 0$
- If  $N < M$ , there are additional  $(M - N)$  poles at  $z = 0$
- For a causal IIR digital filter, the impulse response is a causal sequence
- The ROC of the causal transfer function

$$H(z) = \frac{p_0}{d_0} z^{(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - \xi_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - \lambda_k)}$$

is thus exterior to a circle going through the pole furthest from the origin

- Thus the ROC is given by  $|z| > \max_k |\lambda_k|$



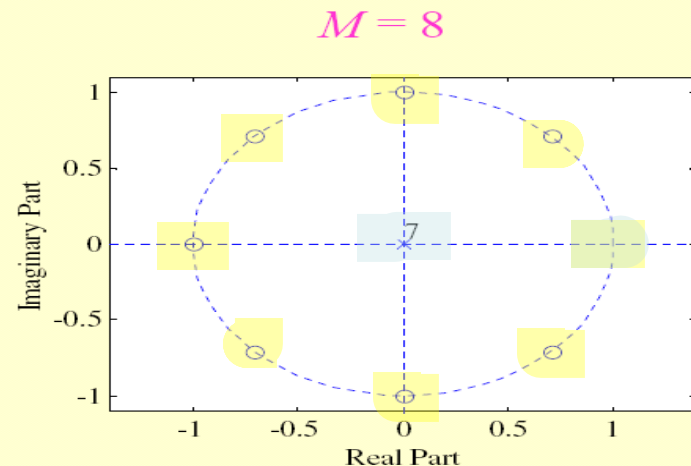
- Example - Consider the  $M$ -point moving-average FIR filter with an impulse response

$$h[n] = \begin{cases} 1/M, & 0 \leq n \leq M-1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Its transfer function is then given by

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=0}^{M-1} z^{-n} = \frac{1 - z^{-M}}{M(1 - z^{-1})} = \frac{z^M - 1}{M[z^M (z - 1)]}$$

- The transfer function has  $M$  zeros on the unit circle at  $z = e^{j2\pi k/M}$ ,  $0 \leq k \leq M-1$
- There are  $M-1$  poles at  $z = 0$  and a single pole at  $z = 1$
- The pole at  $z = 1$  exactly cancels the zero at  $z = 1$
- The ROC is the entire  $z$ -plane except  $z = 0$



- **Example** - A causal LTI IIR digital filter is described by a constant coefficient difference equation given by

$$y[n] = x[n-1] - 1.2x[n-2] + x[n-3] + 1.3y[n-1] - 1.04y[n-2] + 0.222y[n-3]$$

- Its transfer function is therefore given by

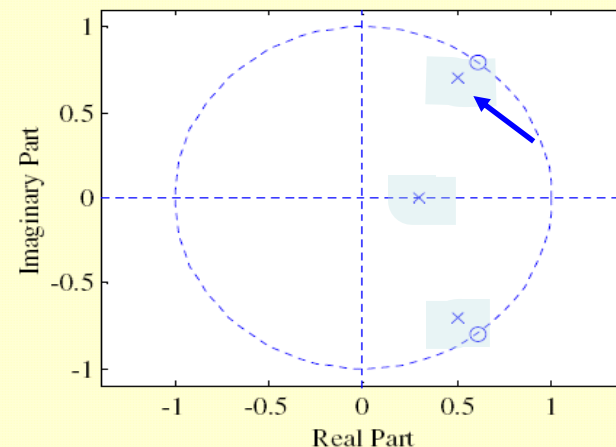
$$H(z) = \frac{z^{-1} - 1.2z^{-2} + z^{-3}}{1 - 1.3z^{-1} + 1.04z^{-2} - 0.222z^{-3}}$$

- **Alternate forms:**

$$\begin{aligned} H(z) &= \frac{z^2 - 1.2z + 1}{z^3 - 1.3z^2 + 1.04z - 0.222} \\ &= \frac{(z - 0.6 + j0.8)(z - 0.6 - j0.8)}{(z - 0.3)(z - 0.5 + j0.7)(z - 0.5 - j0.7)} \end{aligned}$$

- **Note:** Poles farthest from  $z = 0$  have a magnitude  $\sqrt{0.74}$

- **ROC:**  $|z| > \sqrt{0.74}$



# Frequency Response from Transfer Function

- If the ROC of the transfer function  $H(z)$  includes the unit circle, then the frequency response  $H(e^{j\omega})$  of the LTI digital filter can be obtained simply as follows:

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = H(z) \Big|_{z=e^{j\omega}}$$

- For a real coefficient transfer function  $H(z)$  it can be shown that

$$\begin{aligned} |H(e^{j\omega})|^2 &= H(e^{j\omega})H^*(e^{j\omega}) \\ &= H(e^{j\omega})H(e^{-j\omega}) = H(z)H(z^{-1}) \Big|_{z=e^{j\omega}} \end{aligned}$$

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- For a stable rational transfer function in the form

$$H(z) = \frac{p_0}{d_0} z^{(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - \xi_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (z - \lambda_k)}$$

the factored form of the frequency response is given by

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{p_0}{d_0} e^{j\omega(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (e^{j\omega} - \xi_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k)}$$

- It is convenient to visualize the contributions of the **zero factor**  $(z - \xi_k)$  and the **pole factor**  $(z - \lambda_k)$  from the factored form of the frequency response
- The **magnitude function** is given by

$$|H(e^{j\omega})| = \left| \frac{p_0}{d_0} \right| e^{j\omega(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M |e^{j\omega} - \xi_k|}{\prod_{k=1}^N |e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k|}$$

which reduces to

$$|H(e^{j\omega})| = \left| \frac{p_0}{d_0} \right| \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M |e^{j\omega} - \xi_k|}{\prod_{k=1}^N |e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k|}$$

- The **phase response** for a rational transfer function is of the form

$$\arg H(e^{j\omega}) = \arg(p_0 / d_0) + \omega(N - M) + \sum_{k=1}^M \arg(e^{j\omega} - \xi_k) - \sum_{k=1}^N \arg(e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k)$$

# Frequency Response from Transfer Function

- The magnitude-squared function of a real-coefficient transfer function can be computed using

$$\left|H(e^{j\omega})\right|^2 = \left|\frac{p_0}{d_0}\right|^2 \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (e^{j\omega} - \xi_k)(e^{-j\omega} - \xi_k^*)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k)(e^{-j\omega} - \lambda_k^*)}$$

# Geometric Interpretation of Frequency Response Computation

- The factored form of the frequency response

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{p_0}{d_0} e^{j\omega(N-M)} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M (e^{j\omega} - \xi_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^N (e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k)}$$

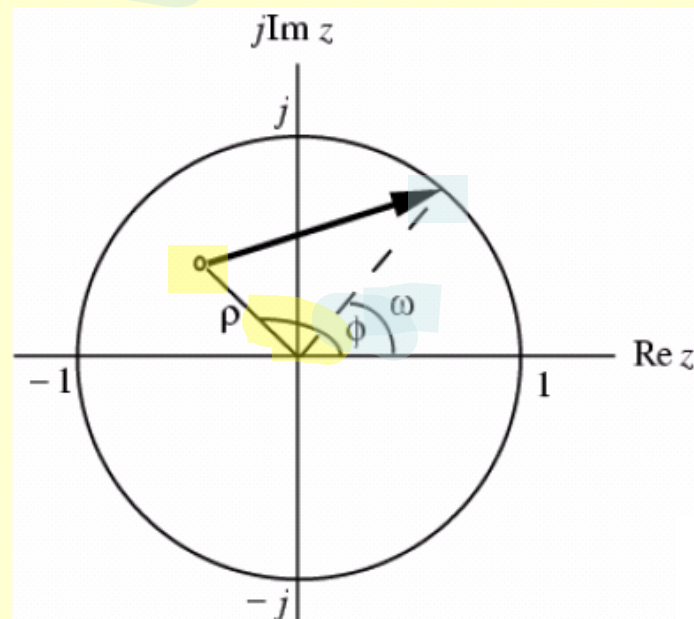
is convenient to develop a geometric interpretation of the frequency response computation from the pole-zero plot as  $\omega$  varies from 0 to  $2\pi$  on the unit circle

- The geometric interpretation can be used to obtain a sketch of the response as a function of the frequency
- A typical factor in the factored form of the frequency response is given by

$$(e^{j\omega} - \rho e^{j\phi})$$

where  $\rho e^{j\phi}$  is a zero if it is zero factor or is a pole if it is a pole factor

- As shown below in the  $z$ -plane the factor  $(e^{j\omega} - \rho e^{j\phi})$  represents a vector starting at the point  $z = \rho e^{j\phi}$  and ending on the unit circle at  $z = e^{j\omega}$



- As  $\omega$  is varied from  $0$  to  $2\pi$ , the tip of the vector moves counterclockwise from the point  $z = 1$  tracing the unit circle and back to the point  $z = 1$

- As indicated by

$$|H(e^{j\omega})| = \frac{p_0}{d_0} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^M |e^{j\omega} - \xi_k|}{\prod_{k=1}^N |e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k|}$$

the magnitude response  $|H(e^{j\omega})|$  at a specific value of  $\omega$  is given by the product of the magnitudes of all zero vectors divided by the product of the magnitudes of all pole vectors

- Likewise, from

$$\arg H(e^{j\omega}) = \arg(p_0 / d_0) + \omega(N - M) + \sum_{k=1}^M \arg(e^{j\omega} - \xi_k) - \sum_{k=1}^N \arg(e^{j\omega} - \lambda_k)$$

we observe that the phase response at a specific value of  $\omega$  is obtained by adding the phase of the term  $p_0 / d_0$  and the linear-phase term  $\omega(N - M)$  to the sum of the angles of the zero vectors minus the angles of the pole vectors



- Thus, an approximate plot of the magnitude and phase responses of the transfer function of an LTI digital filter can be developed by examining the pole and zero locations

- Now, a zero (pole) vector has the smallest magnitude when  $\omega = \phi$
- To highly attenuate signal components in a specified frequency range, we need to place zeros very close to or on the unit circle in this range

- Likewise, to highly emphasize signal components in a specified frequency range, we need to place poles very close to or on the unit circle in this range

# Stability Condition in Terms of the Pole Locations

- A causal LTI digital filter is BIBO stable if and only if its impulse response  $h[n]$  is absolutely summable, i.e.,

$$S = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n]| < \infty$$

- We now develop a stability condition in terms of the pole locations of the transfer function  $H(z)$
- The ROC of the  $z$ -transform  $H(z)$  of the impulse response sequence  $h[n]$  is defined by values of  $|z| = r$  for which  $h[n]r^{-n}$  is absolutely summable
- Thus, if the ROC includes the unit circle  $|z| = 1$ , then the digital filter is stable, and vice versa

- In addition, for a stable and causal digital filter for which  $h[n]$  is a right-sided sequence, the ROC will include the unit circle and entire  $z$ -plane including the point  $z = \infty$

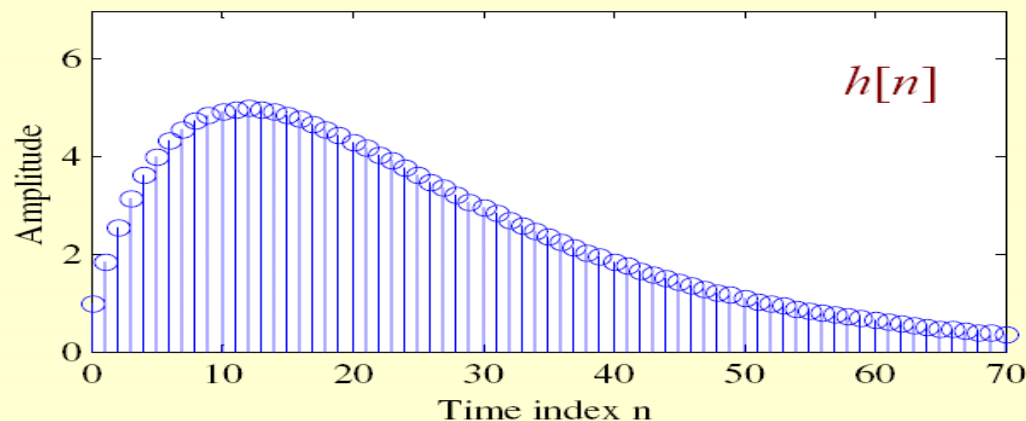
- An FIR digital filter with bounded impulse response is always stable

- On the other hand, an IIR filter may be unstable if not designed properly
- In addition, an originally stable IIR filter characterized by infinite precision coefficients may become unstable when coefficients get quantized due to implementation

- Example - Consider the causal IIR transfer function

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 1.845z^{-1} + 0.850586z^{-2}}$$

- The plot of the impulse response coefficients is shown on the next slide

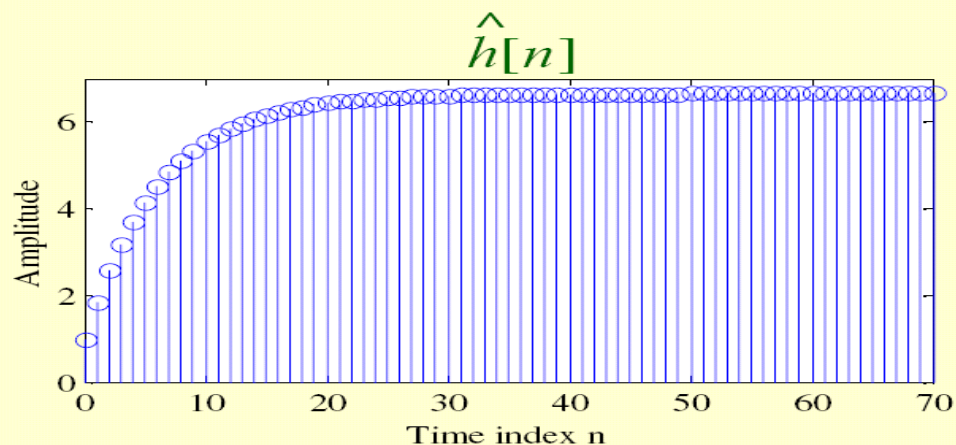


- As can be seen from the above plot, the impulse response coefficient  $h[n]$  decays rapidly to zero value as  $n$  increases

- The absolute summability condition of  $h[n]$  is satisfied
- Hence,  $H(z)$  is a stable transfer function
- Now, consider the case when the transfer function coefficients are rounded to values with 2 digits after the decimal point:

$$\hat{H}(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 1.85z^{-1} + 0.85z^{-2}}$$

- A plot of the impulse response of  $\hat{h}[n]$  is shown below



- In this case, the impulse response coefficient  $\hat{h}[n]$  increases rapidly to a constant value as  $n$  increases
  - Hence, the absolute summability condition of is violated
  - Thus,  $\hat{H}(z)$  is an unstable transfer function
  - The stability testing of a IIR transfer function is therefore an important problem
  - In most cases it is difficult to compute the infinite sum
- $$S = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n]| < \infty$$
- For a causal IIR transfer function, the sum  $S$  can be computed approximately as

$$S_K = \sum_{n=0}^{K-1} |h[n]|$$

- The partial sum is computed for increasing values of  $K$  until the difference between a series of consecutive values of  $S_K$  is smaller than some arbitrarily chosen small number, which is typically  $10^{-6}$
- For a transfer function of very high order this approach may not be satisfactory
- An alternate, easy-to-test, stability condition is developed next

- Consider the causal IIR digital filter with a rational transfer function  $H(z)$  given by

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M p_k z^{-k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N d_k z^{-k}}$$

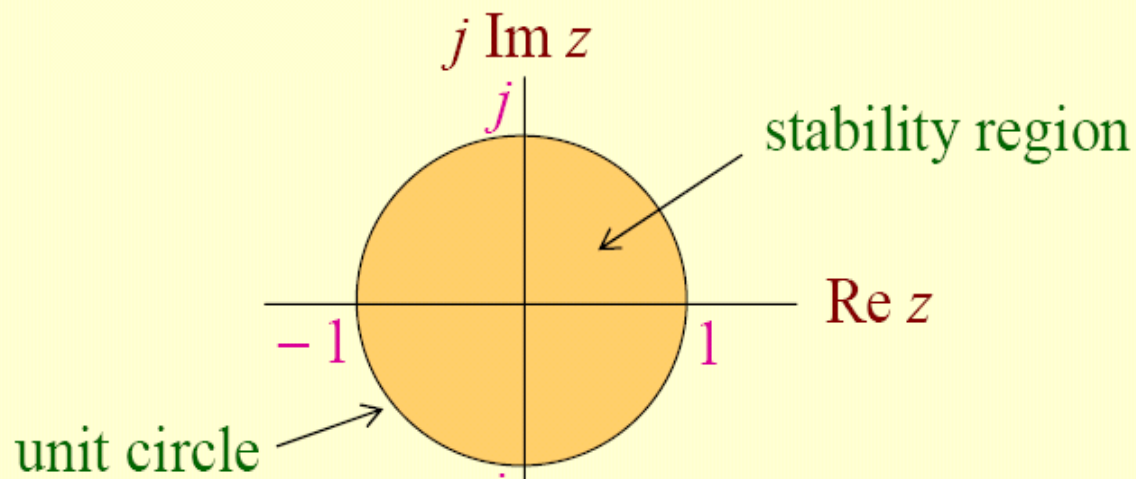
- Its impulse response  $\{h[n]\}$  is a right-sided sequence
- The ROC of  $H(z)$  is exterior to a circle going through the pole furthest from  $z = 0$



- But stability requires that  $\{h[n]\}$  be absolutely summable
- This in turn implies that the DTFT  $H(e^{j\omega})$  of  $\{h[n]\}$  exists
- Now, if the ROC of the  $z$ -transform  $H(z)$  includes the unit circle, then

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = H(z)|_{z=e^{j\omega}}$$

- Conclusion: All poles of a causal stable transfer function  $H(z)$  must be strictly inside the unit circle
- The stability region (shown shaded) in the  $z$ -plane is shown below



# Stability Condition in Terms of the Pole Locations

- Example - The factored form of

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 0.845z^{-1} + 0.850586z^{-2}}$$

is

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{(1 - 0.902z^{-1})(1 - 0.943z^{-1})}$$

which has a real pole at  $z = 0.902$  and a real pole at  $z = 0.943$

- Since both poles are inside the unit circle,  $H(z)$  is BIBO stable

# Stability Condition in Terms of the Pole Locations

- Example - The factored form of

$$\hat{H}(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 1.85z^{-1} + 0.85z^{-2}}$$

is

$$\hat{H}(z) = \frac{1}{(1 - z^{-1})(1 - 0.85z^{-1})}$$

which has a real pole on the unit circle at  $z = 1$  and the other pole inside the unit circle

- Since both poles are not inside the unit circle,  $H(z)$  is unstable