- The DTFT provides a frequency-domain representation of discrete-time signals and LTI discrete-time systems
- Because of the convergence condition, in many cases, the DTFT of a sequence may not exist
- As a result, it is not possible to make use of such frequency-domain characterization in these cases

A generalization of the DTFT defined by

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

leads to the *z*-transform

- z-transform may exist for many sequences for which the DTFT does not exist
- Moreover, use of *z*-transform techniques permits simple algebraic manipulations

- Consequently, z-transform has become an important tool in the analysis and design of digital filters
- For a given sequence g[n], its z-transform G(z) is defined as

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

where z = Re(z) + jIm(z) is a complex variable

• If we let $z = re^{j\omega}$, then the z-transform reduces to

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

- The above can be interpreted as the DTFT of the modified sequence $\{g[n]r^{-n}\}$
- For r = 1 (i.e., |z| = 1), z-transform reduces to its DTFT, provided the latter exists

- The contour $|\mathbf{z}| = 1$ is a circle in the *z*-plane of unity radius and is called the **unit circle**
- Like the DTFT, there are conditions on the convergence of the infinite series

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

• For a given sequence, the set \mathcal{R} of values of z for which its z-transform converges is called the **region of convergence** (ROC)

• From our earlier discussion on the uniform convergence of the DTFT, it follows that the series

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

converges if $\{g[n]r^{-n}\}$ is absolutely summable, i.e., if

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left| g[n] r^{-n} \right| < \infty$$

• In general, the ROC \mathcal{R} of a z-transform of a sequence g[n] is an annular region of the z-plane:

$$|R_g - < |z| < R_g +$$

where
$$0 \le R_{g^-} < R_{g^+} \le \infty$$

• Note: The *z*-transform is a form of a Laurent series and is an analytic function at every point in the ROC

• Example - Determine the *z*-transform X(z) of the causal sequence $x[n] = \alpha^n \mu[n]$ and its ROC

• Now
$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha^n \mu[n] z^{-n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha^n z^{-n}$$

The above power series converges to

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}, \quad \text{for } \left| \alpha z^{-1} \right| < 1$$

• ROC is the annular region $|z| > |\alpha|$

• Example - The z-transform $\mu(z)$ of the unit step sequence $\mu[n]$ can be obtained from

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}, \quad \text{for } \left| \alpha z^{-1} \right| < 1$$

by setting $\alpha = 1$:

$$\mu(z) = \frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}, \text{ for } |z^{-1}| < 1$$

• ROC is the annular region $1 < |z| \le \infty$

 Note: The unit step sequence μ[n] is not absolutely summable, and hence its DTFT does not converge uniformly

• Example - Consider the anti-causal sequence

$$y[n] = -\alpha^n \mu[-n-1]$$

• Its z-transform is given by

$$Y(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} -\alpha^{n} z^{-n} = -\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{-m} z^{m}$$

$$= -\alpha^{-1} z \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{-m} z^{m} = -\frac{\alpha^{-1} z}{1 - \alpha^{-1} z}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}, \text{ for } |\alpha^{-1} z| < 1$$

• ROC is the annular region $|z| < \alpha$

- Note: The z-transforms of the two sequences $\alpha^n \mu[n]$ and $-\alpha^n \mu[-n-1]$ are identical even though the two parent sequences are different
- Only way a unique sequence can be associated with a *z*-transform is by specifying its ROC

- The DTFT $G(e^{j\omega})$ of a sequence g[n] converges uniformly if and only if the ROC of the z-transform G(z) of g[n] includes the unit circle
- The existence of the DTFT does not always imply the existence of the *z*-transform

• Example - The finite energy sequence

$$h_{LP}[n] = \frac{\sin \omega_c n}{\pi n}, \quad -\infty < n < \infty$$

has a DTFT given by

$$H_{LP}(e^{j\omega}) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le |\omega| \le \omega_c \\ 0, & \omega_c < |\omega| \le \pi \end{cases}$$

which converges in the mean-square sense

• However, $h_{LP}[n]$ does not have a *z*-transform as it is not absolutely summable for any value of r

• Some commonly used *z*-transform pairs are listed on the next slide

Table 3.8: 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 $
$r^n \cos \omega_o n) \mu[n]$	$\frac{1 - (r\cos\omega_o)z^{-1}}{1 - (2r\cos\omega_o)z^{-1} + r^2z^{-2}}$	z > r
$(r^n \sin \omega_o n) \mu[n]$	$\frac{(r\sin\omega_o)z^{-1}}{1 - (2r\cos\omega_o)z^{-1} + r^2z^{-2}}$	z > r

- In the case of LTI discrete-time systems we are concerned with in this course, all pertinent z-transforms are rational functions of z^{-1}
- That is, they are ratios of two polynomials in z^{-1} :

$$G(z) = \frac{P(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{p_0 + p_1 z^{-1} + \dots + p_{M-1} z^{-(M-1)} + p_M z^{-M}}{d_0 + d_1 z^{-1} + \dots + d_{N-1} z^{-(N-1)} + d_N z^{-N}}$$

- The degree of the numerator polynomial P(z) is M and the degree of the denominator polynomial D(z) is N
- An alternate representation of a rational ztransform is as a ratio of two polynomials in z:

$$G(z) = z^{(N-M)} \frac{p_0 z^M + p_1 z^{M-1} + \dots + p_{M-1} z + p_M}{d_0 z^N + d_1 z^{N-1} + \dots + d_{N-1} z + d_N}$$

• A rational *z*-transform can be alternately written in factored form as

$$G(z) = \frac{p_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^{M} (1 - \xi_{\ell} z^{-1})}{d_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} (1 - \lambda_{\ell} z^{-1})}$$

$$= z^{(N-M)} \frac{p_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^{M} (z - \xi_{\ell})}{d_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} (z - \lambda_{\ell})}$$

- At a root $z = \xi_{\ell}$ of the numerator polynomial $G(\xi_{\ell}) = 0$, and as a result, these values of z are known as the **zeros** of G(z)
- At a root $z = \lambda_{\ell}$ of the denominator polynomial $G(\lambda_{\ell}) \to \infty$, and as a result, these values of z are known as the **poles** of G(z)

Consider

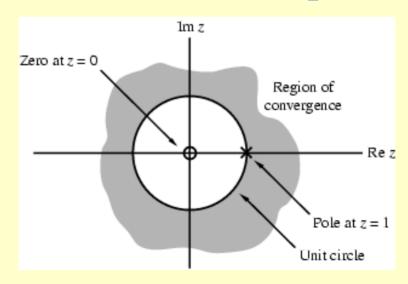
$$G(z) = z^{(N-M)} \frac{p_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^{M} (z - \xi_{\ell})}{d_0 \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} (z - \lambda_{\ell})}$$

- Note G(z) has M finite zeros and N finite poles
- If N > M there are additional N M zeros at z = 0 (the origin in the z-plane)
- If N < M there are additional M N poles at z = 0

• Example - The z-transform

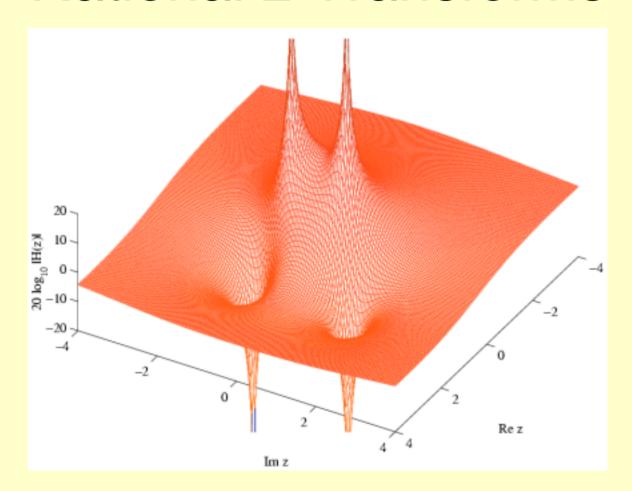
$$\mu(z) = \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}}, \text{ for } |z| > 1$$

has a zero at z = 0 and a pole at z = 1



• A physical interpretation of the concepts of poles and zeros can be given by plotting the log-magnitude $20\log_{10}|G(z)|$ as shown on next slide for

$$G(z) = \frac{1 - 2.4z^{-1} + 2.88z^{-2}}{1 - 0.8z^{-1} + 0.64z^{-2}}$$

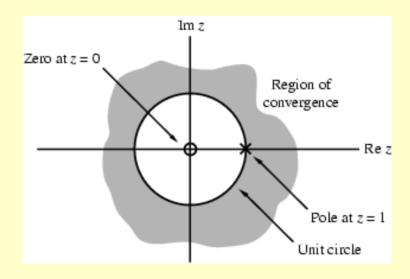


- Observe that the magnitude plot exhibits very large peaks around the points $z = 0.4 \pm j \, 0.6928$ which are the poles of G(z)
- It also exhibits very narrow and deep wells around the location of the zeros at $z = 1.2 \pm j1.2$

- ROC of a *z*-transform is an important concept
- Without the knowledge of the ROC, there is no unique relationship between a sequence and its *z*-transform
- Hence, the *z*-transform must always be specified with its ROC

- Moreover, if the ROC of a *z*-transform includes the unit circle, the DTFT of the sequence is obtained by simply evaluating the *z*-transform on the unit circle
- There is a relationship between the ROC of the *z*-transform of the impulse response of a causal LTI discrete-time system and its BIBO stability

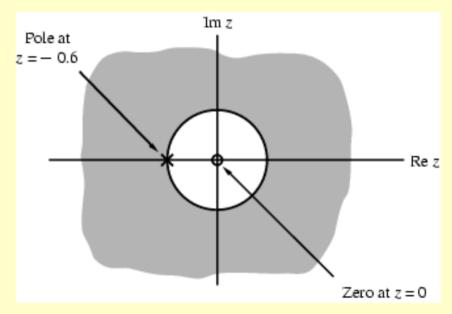
- The ROC of a rational z-transform is bounded by the locations of its poles
- To understand the relationship between the poles and the ROC, it is instructive to examine the pole-zero plot of a *z*-transform
- Consider again the pole-zero plot of the z-transform $\mu(z)$



• In this plot, the ROC, shown as the shaded area, is the region of the z-plane just outside the circle centered at the origin and going through the pole at z = 1

• Example - The z-transform H(z) of the sequence $h[n] = (-0.6)^n \mu[n]$ is given by

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 + 0.6 z^{-1}},$$
$$|z| > 0.6$$



• Here the ROC is just outside the circle going through the point z = -0.6

- A sequence can be one of the following types: finite-length, right-sided, left-sided and two-sided
- In general, the ROC depends on the type of the sequence of interest

- Example Consider a finite-length sequence g[n] defined for $-M \le n \le N$, where M and N are non-negative integers and $g[n] < \infty$
- Its z-transform is given by

$$G(z) = \sum_{n=-M}^{N} g[n]z^{-n} = \frac{\sum_{0}^{N+M} g[n-M]z^{N+M-n}}{z^{N}}$$

- Note: G(z) has M poles at $z = \infty$ and N poles at z = 0
- As can be seen from the expression for G(z), the z-transform of a finite-length bounded sequence converges everywhere in the z-plane except possibly at z = 0 and/or at $z = \infty$

- Example A right-sided sequence with nonzero sample values for $n \ge 0$ is sometimes called a causal sequence
- Consider a causal sequence $u_1[n]$
- Its z-transform is given by

$$U_1(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_1[n] z^{-n}$$

- It can be shown that $U_1(z)$ converges exterior to a circle $|z|=R_1$, including the point $z=\infty$
- On the other hand, a right-sided sequence $u_2[n]$ with nonzero sample values only for $n \ge -M$ with M nonnegative has a z-transform $U_2(z)$ with M poles at $z = \infty$
- The ROC of $U_2(z)$ is exterior to a circle $|z| = R_2$, excluding the point $z = \infty$

- Example A left-sided sequence with nonzero sample values for $n \le 0$ is sometimes called a **anticausal sequence**
- Consider an anticausal sequence $v_1[n]$
- Its z-transform is given by

$$V_1(z) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{0} v_1[n] z^{-n}$$

- It can be shown that $V_1(z)$ converges interior to a circle $|z| = R_3$, including the point z = 0
- On the other hand, a left-sided sequence with nonzero sample values only for $n \le N$ with N nonnegative has a z-transform $V_2(z)$ with N poles at z = 0
- The ROC of $V_2(z)$ is interior to a circle $|z| = R_4$, excluding the point z = 0

• Example - The z-transform of a two-sided sequence w[n] can be expressed as

$$W(z) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} w[n] z^{-n} = \sum_{n = 0}^{\infty} w[n] z^{-n} + \sum_{n = -\infty}^{-1} w[n] z^{-n}$$

• The first term on the RHS, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} w[n]z^{-n}$, can be interpreted as the *z*-transform of a right-sided sequence and it thus converges exterior to the circle $|z| = R_5$

- The second term on the RHS, $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} w[n]z^{-n}$, can be interpreted as the z-transform of a left-sided sequence and it thus converges interior to the circle $|z| = R_6$
- If $R_5 < R_6$, there is an overlapping ROC given by $R_5 < |z| < R_6$
- If $R_5 > R_6$, there is no overlap and the *z*-transform does not exist

• Example - Consider the two-sided sequence

$$u[n] = \alpha^n$$

where α can be either real or complex

• Its z-transform is given by

$$U(z) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} \alpha^{n} z^{-n} = \sum_{n = 0}^{\infty} \alpha^{n} z^{-n} + \sum_{n = -\infty}^{-1} \alpha^{n} z^{-n}$$

• The first term on the RHS converges for $|z| > |\alpha|$, whereas the second term converges for $|z| < |\alpha|$

- There is no overlap between these two regions
- Hence, the *z*-transform of $u[n] = \alpha^n$ does not exist

- The ROC of a rational *z*-transform cannot contain any poles and is bounded by the poles
- To show that the *z*-transform is bounded by the poles, assume that the *z*-transform X(z)has simple poles at $z = \alpha$ and $z = \beta$
- Assume that the corresponding sequence
 x[n] is a right-sided sequence

• Then x[n] has the form

$$x[n] = (r_1 \alpha^n + r_2 \beta^n) \mu[n - N_o], \quad |\alpha| < |\beta|$$

where N_o is a positive or negative integer

• Now, the z-transform of the right-sided sequence $\gamma^n \mu[n-N_o]$ exists if

$$\sum_{n=N_o}^{\infty} \left| \gamma^n z^{-n} \right| < \infty$$

for some z

• The condition

$$\sum_{n=N_o}^{\infty} \left| \gamma^n z^{-n} \right| < \infty$$

holds for $|z| > |\gamma|$ but not for $|z| \le |\gamma|$

• Therefore, the *z*-transform of

$$x[n] = (r_1 \alpha^n + r_2 \beta^n) \mu[n - N_o], \quad |\alpha| < |\beta|$$

has an ROC defined by $|\beta| < |z| \le \infty$

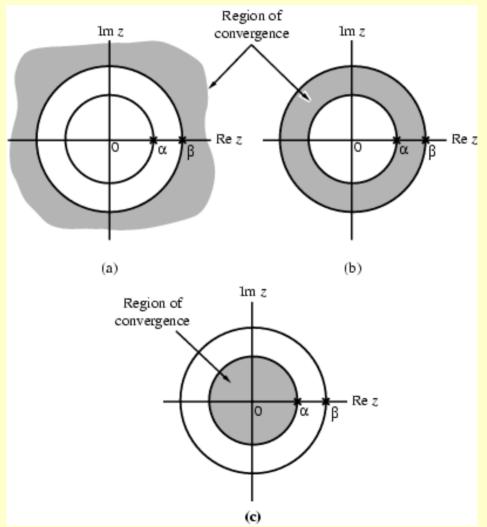
• Likewise, the *z*-transform of a left-sided sequence

$$x[n] = (r_1 \alpha^n + r_2 \beta^n) \mu[-n - N_o], \quad |\alpha| < |\beta|$$

has an ROC defined by $0 \le |z| < |\alpha|$

• Finally, for a two-sided sequence, some of the poles contribute to terms in the parent sequence for n < 0 and the other poles contribute to terms $n \ge 0$

- The ROC is thus bounded on the outside by the pole with the smallest magnitude that contributes for n < 0 and on the inside by the pole with the largest magnitude that contributes for $n \ge 0$
- There are three possible ROCs of a rational z-transform with poles at $z = \alpha$ and $z = \beta$ $(|\alpha| < |\beta|)$



- In general, if the rational *z*-transform has *N* poles with *R* distinct magnitudes, then it has *R*+1 ROCs
- Thus, there are *R* +1 distinct sequences with the same *z*-transform
- Hence, a rational z-transform with a specified ROC has a unique sequence as its inverse z-transform

• The ROC of a rational *z*-transform can be easily determined using MATLAB

```
[z,p,k] = tf2zp(num,den)
```

determines the zeros, poles, and the gain constant of a rational z-transform with the numerator coefficients specified by the vector num and the denominator coefficients specified by the vector den

- [num,den] = zp2tf(z,p,k) implements the reverse process
- The factored form of the z-transform can be obtained using sos = zp2sos(z,p,k)
- The above statement computes the coefficients of each second-order factor given as an $L \times 6$ matrix sos

$$sos = \begin{bmatrix} b_{01} & b_{11} & b_{21} & a_{01} & a_{11} & a_{12} \\ b_{02} & b_{12} & b_{22} & a_{02} & a_{12} & a_{22} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ b_{0L} & b_{1L} & b_{2L} & a_{0L} & a_{1L} & a_{2L} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

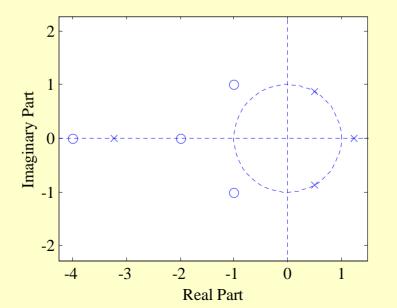
$$G(z) = \prod_{k=1}^{L} \frac{b_{0k} + b_{1k}z^{-1} + b_{2k}z^{-2}}{a_{0k} + a_{1k}z^{-1} + a_{2k}z^{-2}}$$

- The pole-zero plot is determined using the function zplane
- The z-transform can be either described in terms of its zeros and poles: zplane(zeros, poles)
- or, it can be described in terms of its numerator and denominator coefficients: zplane(num, den)

• Example - The pole-zero plot of

$$G(z) = \frac{2z^4 + 16z^3 + 44z^2 + 56z + 32}{3z^4 + 3z^3 - 15z^2 + 18z - 12}$$

obtained using MATLAB is shown below



$$\times$$
-pole

Inverse z-Transform

• General Expression: Recall that, for $z = re^{J\omega}$, 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

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

Inverse z-Transform

• By making a change of variable $z = re^{J\omega}$, 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

Inverse z-Transform

- 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

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

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

- 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

• 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 $M \ge N$ 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

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

- 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 $z = \lambda_k, 1 \le k \le N$
- 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 ρ_ℓ 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

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

• Note: The above approach with a slight modification can also be used to determine the inverse of a rational *z*-transform of a noncausal sequence

• 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

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

Now

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

and

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

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

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

- 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 $z = \lambda_{\ell}$, $1 \le \ell \le N L$

• Then the partial-fraction expansion of G(z) is of the form

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

where the constants γ_i are computed using

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

• The residues ρ_{ℓ} are calculated as before

Partial-Fraction Expansion Using MATLAB

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

Partial-Fraction Expansion Using MATLAB

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

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

Inverse z-Transform via 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

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

As a result

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

Inverse z-Transform Using MATLAB

- The function 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

Table 3.9: 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	$g[n-n_o]$	$z^{-n_{\theta}}G(z)$	\mathcal{R}_g , except possibly the point $z = 0$ or ∞
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 ∞
Convolution	$g[n] \circledast h[n]$	G(z)H(z)	Includes $\mathcal{R}_g \cap \mathcal{R}_h$
Modulation	g[n]h[n]	$\tfrac{1}{2\pi j}\oint_C G(v)H(z/v)v^{-1}dv$	Includes $\mathcal{R}_g \mathcal{R}_h$
Parseval's relation		$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g[n]h^*[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C G$	$G(v)H^*(1/v^*)v^{-1}dv$

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 $R_{g^-}R_{h^-} < |z| < R_{g^+}R_{h^+}$.

• Example - Consider the two-sided sequence $v[n] = \alpha^n \mu[n] - \beta^n \mu[-n-1]$

- Let $x[n] = \alpha^n \mu[n]$ and $y[n] = -\beta^n \mu[-n-1]$ with X(z) and Y(z) denoting, respectively, their z-transforms
- Now $X(z) = \frac{1}{1 \alpha z^{-1}}, \quad |z| > |\alpha|$ and $Y(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \beta z^{-1}}, \quad |z| < |\beta|$

• Using the linearity property we arrive at

$$V(z) = X(z) + Y(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} + \frac{1}{1 - \beta z^{-1}}$$

- The ROC of V(z) is given by the overlap regions of $|z| > |\alpha|$ and $|z| < |\beta|$
- If $|\alpha| < |\beta|$, then there is an overlap and the ROC is an annular region $|\alpha| < |z| < |\beta|$
- If $|\alpha| > |\beta|$, then there is no overlap and V(z) does not exist

• Example - Determine the *z*-transform and its ROC of the causal sequence

$$x[n] = r^n(\cos \omega_o n)\mu[n]$$

- We can express x[n] = v[n] + v*[n] where $v[n] = \frac{1}{2}r^n e^{j\omega_o n} \mu[n] = \frac{1}{2}\alpha^n \mu[n]$
- The z-transform of v[n] is given by

$$V(z) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - r e^{j\omega_o} z^{-1}}, \quad |z| > |\alpha| = r$$

• Using the conjugation property we obtain the z-transform of $v^*[n]$ as

$$V^*(z^*) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \alpha^* z^{-1}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - r e^{-j\omega_o} z^{-1}},$$

$$|z| > |\alpha|$$

• Finally, using the linearity property we get

$$X(z) = V(z) + V * (z*)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1 - r e^{j\omega_o} z^{-1}} + \frac{1}{1 - r e^{-j\omega_o} z^{-1}} \right)$$

• or,

$$X(z) = \frac{1 - (r\cos\omega_o)z^{-1}}{1 - (2r\cos\omega_o)z^{-1} + r^2z^{-2}}, \quad |z| > r$$

• Example - Determine the z-transform Y(z) and the ROC of the sequence

$$y[n] = (n+1)\alpha^n \mu[n]$$

• We can write y[n] = n x[n] + x[n] where

$$x[n] = \alpha^n \mu[n]$$

• Now, the *z*-transform X(z) of $x[n] = \alpha^n \mu[n]$ is given by

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}, |z| > |\alpha|$$

• Using the differentiation property, we arrive at the *z*-transform of n x[n] as

$$-z\frac{dX(z)}{dz} = \frac{\alpha z^{-1}}{(1-\alpha z^{-1})}, \quad |z| > |\alpha|$$

• Using the linearity property we finally obtain

$$Y(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}} + \frac{\alpha z^{-1}}{(1 - \alpha z^{-1})^2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha z^{-1})^2}, |z| > |\alpha|$$