

# Digital Communication Notes

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# 1 Transforms

## 1.1 Fourier Transforms

### 1.1.1 Continuous-Time Fourier Transform

A well-behaved continuous-time function  $x(t)$  and its Fourier transform  $X(f)$  are related by the *analysis* and *synthesis* equations:

$$X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt \quad (\text{transform}) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} X(f)e^{j2\pi ft} df \quad (\text{inverse transform}) \quad (\text{A.2})$$

### 1.1.2 Continuous-Time Fourier Series

Periodic functions do not fall under the umbrella of well-behaved functions. Yet they are very important in the analysis of communication signals. We can side-step this problem by using the definition of the Fourier series and by invoking the *Dirac delta function*  $\delta(t)$ .

Consider a periodic signal  $x(t)$  whose period  $T > 0$  is the smallest real number such that  $x(t) = x(t + T)$ . The continuous-time Fourier series of such signal is defined as:

$$X[n] = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(t)e^{-j\frac{2\pi nt}{T}} dt \quad (\text{analysis}) \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$$x(t) = \sum_n X[n]e^{j\frac{2\pi nt}{T}} \quad (\text{synthesis}) \quad (\text{A.4})$$

### 1.1.3 Table A.1: Continuous-Time Fourier Transform Properties

Property	Aperiodic Signal	Fourier Transform
Linearity	$ax(t) + by(t)$	$aX(f) + bY(f)$
Time shift	$x(t - t_0)$	$e^{-j2\pi ft_0} X(f)$
Conjugation	$x^*(t)$	$X^*(-f)$
Time reversal	$x(-t)$	$X(-f)$
Time scaling	$x(at)$	$\frac{1}{ a } X\left(\frac{f}{a}\right)$
Convolution	$x(t) * y(t) = \int x(\tau)y(t - \tau) d\tau$	$X(f)Y(f)$
Autocorrelation	$x(t) * x^*(-t)$	$ X(f) ^2$
Modulation	$x(t)e^{j2\pi f_0 t}$	$X(f - f_0)$
Conjugate symmetry	$x(t)$ real	$X(f) = X^*(-f)$
Duality	$x(t) \longleftrightarrow X(f)$	$X(t) \longleftrightarrow x(-f)$
<b>Parseval's theorem</b>	$\int x(t)y^*(t) dt$	$\int X(f)Y^*(f) df$

**1.1.4 Table A.2: Continuous-Time Fourier Transform Pairs**

Function	Time-domain	Frequency-domain
Impulse	$\delta(t)$	1
Constant function	1	$\delta(f)$
Complex exponential	$e^{j2\pi f_0 t}$	$\delta(f - f_0)$
Cosine	$\cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)$	$\frac{1}{2}[e^{j\theta}\delta(f - f_0) + e^{-j\theta}\delta(f + f_0)]$
Sine	$\sin(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)$	$\frac{1}{2j}[e^{j\theta}\delta(f - f_0) - e^{-j\theta}\delta(f + f_0)]$
Impulse train	$\sum_k \delta(t - kT)$	$\frac{1}{T} \sum_n \delta(f - \frac{n}{T})$
Rectangular pulse	$\text{rect}(\frac{t}{T}) = \begin{cases} 1, &  t  \leq \frac{T}{2} \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$	$T \text{sinc}(fT) = T \frac{\sin(\pi fT)}{\pi f}$
Bandlimited pulse	$W \text{sinc}^2(fW)$	—
Sinc pulse	$\text{sinc}(Wt) = \frac{\sin(\pi Wt)}{\pi Wt}$	$\frac{1}{W} \text{rect}(\frac{f}{W})$

The continuous-time Fourier series creates as an output a weighting (ponderazione, quanto peso) of the fundamental frequency of the signal  $e^{j\frac{2\pi t}{T}}$  and its harmonics.

We can express the Fourier transform of a periodic signal as:

$$X(f) = \sum_n X[n] \delta\left(f - \frac{n}{T}\right) \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} X(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df \quad (\text{A.6})$$

where the unboundedness of (A.1) is circumvented by means of  $\delta(f)$ .

*Dato che un segnale periodico ha durata infinita, le sue trasformate non sono funzioni ordinarie, ma distribuzioni formate da impulsi di Dirac.*

## 1.2 Discrete-Time Fourier Transform

Consider now a well-behaved discrete-time signal  $x[n]$ . Its discrete-time Fourier transform analysis and synthesis relationships are:

$$X(\nu) = \sum_n x[n] e^{-j2\pi n\nu} \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$x[n] = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} X(\nu) e^{j2\pi n\nu} d\nu \quad (\text{A.8})$$

where the frequency  $\nu$  is defined on any finite interval of unit length, typically  $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ .

## 1.3 Discrete Fourier Transform

While the discrete-time Fourier transform offers a sound analytical framework for discrete-time signals, it is inconvenient due to its continuous frequency.

So an alternative is the **DFT** and the **Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)**.

The DFT is extremely important in digital signal processing and communications.

It applies to finite-length discrete-time signals and, since any finite-length signal can be repeated to form a periodic discrete-time signal, the DFT can also be interpreted as applying to periodic signals.

$$X[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}kn}, \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (\text{A.9})$$

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X[k] e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}kn}, \quad n = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (\text{A.10})$$

Length- $N$ sequence	$N$ -point DFT
$x[n]$	$X[k]$
$ax[n] + by[n]$	$aX[k] + bY[k]$
$x[n]$	$NX[((-k))_N]$
$x[(n-m)_N]$	$e^{j2\pi km/N} X[k]$
$\sum_m x[m]y[((n-m))_N]$	$X[k]Y[k]$
$x^*[n]$	$X^*[((-k))_N]$
$x[n]$ real	$X[k] = X^*[((-k))_N]$

## 1.4 Z-Transform

The Z-transform converts a function of a discrete real variable to a function of a complex variable  $z$ . This converts difference equations into algebraic equations and convolution into products.

The Z-transform of a causal function  $x[n]$  is:

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x[n] z^{-n} \quad (\text{A.13})$$

while the inversion of  $X(z)$  back onto  $x[n]$  requires an integration on the complex plane.

## 2 Matrix Algebra

### 2.1 Column Space, Row Space, Null Spaces

The **column space** of an  $N \times M$  matrix  $A$  is the set of all linear combinations of its column vectors. It is therefore a subspace (whose dimension is at most  $M$ ) of the  $N$ -dimensional vector space.

We can write the linear combination as the product of  $A$  with the vector  $\mathbf{x} = [x_0, \dots, x_{M-1}]^T$ :

$$A \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ \vdots \\ x_{M-1} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

### 2.1.1 Example B.1

The column space of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

is the set of vectors  $\mathbf{y} = [y_0 \ y_1 \ y_2]^T$  having the form

$$\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x} \quad (\text{B.3})$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3x_1 \\ 2x_0 \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (\text{B.4})$$

These vectors satisfy  $y_0 = 3y_2$ , which defines a subspace of dimension  $M = 2$  (that is, a plane) on a vector space of dimension  $N = 3$ .

### 2.1.2 Example B.2

The **row space** of  $A$  in (B.2), in turn, is the set of vectors  $\mathbf{y}$  having the form

$$\mathbf{y} = A^T \mathbf{x} \quad (\text{B.5})$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 \\ 3x_0 + x_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (\text{B.6})$$

which defines the entire vector space of dimension  $M = 2$ .

*The column rank and row rank correspond to the dimensions of the column space and row space, respectively.*

The fact that the column and row ranks coincide in this case is not a coincidence. The row and column ranks always coincide, giving the **rank of a matrix**.

In addition, we have also two additional subspaces:

- **Orthogonal complement of row space** (null space of  $A$ ): all vectors satisfying  $A\mathbf{x} = 0$ , which has dimension  $M - \text{rank}(A)$ .
- **Orthogonal complement of column space** (null space of  $A^T$ ): with dimension  $N - \text{rank}(A)$ .

## 3 Special Matrices

### 3.1 Hermitian Matrices

A complex matrix  $A$  is said to be **Hermitian** if  $A^* = A$ .

- They are quadratic.
- They have real elements on the diagonal.
- Off-diagonal elements are complex conjugates of each other.

- Eigenvalues are always real.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1+i & 4 \\ 1-i & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

### 3.2 Unitary Matrices

A complex matrix  $U$  is said to be **unitary** if  $U^*U = UU^* = I$ .

- $U$  is nonsingular, and  $U^* = U^{-1}$ .
- The columns of  $U$  form an orthonormal set, as do the rows of  $U$ .
- For any complex vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , the vector  $\mathbf{y} = U\mathbf{x}$  satisfies  $|\mathbf{y}| = |\mathbf{x}|$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{y}$  is a rotated version of  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $U$  embodies that rotation.

### 3.3 Fourier Matrices

An  $N \times N$  **Fourier matrix**  $U$  is a unitary matrix whose  $(i, j)$ th entry equals  $e^{j2\pi ij/N}$ . It follows that the  $j$ th column, for  $j = 0, \dots, N-1$ , is given by

$$U_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ e^{j2\pi j/N} \\ \vdots \\ e^{j2\pi(N-1)j/N} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B.7})$$

The **DFT** of a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  is

$$\mathbf{X} = \sqrt{N} U^* \mathbf{x} \quad (\text{B.8})$$

and the **IDFT** is

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} U \mathbf{X} \quad (\text{B.9})$$

Indeed, by interpreting the entries of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{X}$  as sequences, (B.8) and (B.9) are scaled versions of the  $\text{DFT}_N\{\cdot\}$  and  $\text{IDFT}_N\{\cdot\}$  transforms in (A.9) and (A.10).

### 3.4 Toeplitz and Circulant Matrices

A **Toeplitz matrix** is constant along each of its diagonals.

A **Toeplitz circular matrix** is completely described by any of its rows, of which the other rows are just circular shifts with offsets to the row indices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (\text{B.10})$$

If  $A$  is an  $N \times N$  **circulant matrix**, then the following holds:

- The eigenvectors of  $A$  equal the columns of the Fourier matrix  $U$  in (B.7).

- The eigenvalues of  $A$  equal the entries of  $U^* \mathbf{a}$ , where  $\mathbf{a}$  is any column of  $A$ .

Hence, the eigenvalues of a circulant matrix are directly the DFT of any o