

| UNIT-02 |
|--|
| UNIT-02/LECTURE-01 |
| NEED AND TYPES OF MODULATION TECHNIQUES |
| <p>In a carrier communication system, the baseband signal of a low-frequency spectrum is translated to a high frequency spectrum. This is achieved through modulation. The aim of this topic is to explore the reasons for using modulation.</p> <p>Modulation is defined as a process by virtue of which, some characteristic of a high frequency sinusoidal wave is varied in accordance with the instantaneous amplitude of the baseband signal.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">OR</p> <p>"Modulation is the process of superimposing a low frequency signal on a high frequency carrier signal."</p> <p style="text-align: center;">OR</p> <p>"The process of modulation can be defined as varying the RF carrier wave in accordance with the intelligence or information in a low frequency signal."</p> <p style="text-align: center;">OR</p> <p>"Modulation is defined as the process by which some characteristics, usually amplitude, frequency or phase, of a carrier is varied in accordance with instantaneous value of some other voltage, called the modulating voltage."</p> <p>Two signals are involved in the modulation process. The baseband signal and the carrier signal. The baseband signal is to be transmitted to the receiver. The frequency of this signal is generally low. In the modulation process, this baseband signal is called the modulating signal. The waveform of this signal is unpredictable. For example, the waveform of a speech signal is random in nature and cannot be predicted. In this case, the speech signal is the modulating signal.</p> <p>The other signal involved with the modulation is a high frequency sinusoidal wave. This signal is called the carrier signal or carrier. The frequency of the carrier signal is always much higher than that of the baseband signal. After modulation, the baseband signal of low frequency is transferred to the high frequency carrier, which carries the information in the form of some variations. After the completion of the modulation process, some characteristic of the carrier is varied such that the resultant variations carry the information.</p> <p>The carrier signal is represented by the equation:</p> $e_c = E_c \sin(\omega c t + \phi) \quad \text{----- (1)}$ <p>In Equation (1), c is an indicator that this equation represents the carrier signal. The</p> |

components of this equation are as follows:

- e_c : Instantaneous amplitude of the carrier
- E_c : Amplitude of the carrier
- Angular frequency of the carrier, such that $\omega_c = 2\pi f_c$, Where f_c is the frequency carrier, also called the central frequency
- ϕ : Initial phase of the carrier signal

Equation (1) has three parameters namely, amplitudes (E_c), frequency (ω_c), and phase (ϕ). In principle, these parameters have constant values for a particular sinusoidal wave. According to the definition of Modulation, some characteristic of the carrier signal is varied in accordance with the modulating signal. After modulation any one of the three parameters of the carrier signal, namely, frequency, or phase, is varied keeping the remaining two constant.

The baseband signal is then carried by these variations. The type of the modulation is decided by the parameter chosen to vary.

For example, if amplitude of the carrier is chosen to vary in accordance with the instantaneous amplitude of the baseband signal, keeping frequency and phase constant, the

Resulting modulation called amplitude modulation. Frequency modulation and phase modulation are also obtained in a similar way.

Low-frequency baseband signal is thus translated to a high frequency carrier such that the information is coded in the variations in one of the parameters of the carrier. At the receiver side, these variations are detected through the demodulation process to recover the original baseband signal.

The following can be summarized with reference to modulation.

- The baseband signal is known as the modulating signal.
- The baseband signal is a low-frequency signal.
- The carrier signal is always a high frequency sinusoidal wave.
- During the modulation process, the modulating signal varies the frequency, amplitude, or phase of the carrier in accordance with its instantaneous amplitude.
- After modulation, the carrier is said to be modulated by the modulating.
- The output of the modulator is called the modulated signal.

The process of modulation in a communication system increases its cost and complexity. This may be considered as a disadvantage. However, modulation is extensively used in most communication systems. There is a definite need for using modulation. There can be problems if modulation is not used. Scrutinizing these problems can explain why modulation is required.

The baseband signal will be transmitted as it is. If modulation is not employed however, the system designer could confront the following problems:

- Antenna Height

- Narrow Banding
- Poor radiation and penetration
- Diffraction angle
- Multiplexing

Need of modulation:-

(DEC 2013)(7)

The message signal cannot be transmitted directly through the communication channel. The message signal which has low frequency is modulated with the high frequency carrier i.e. the message signal is shifted to high frequency range. Reasons for modulation:

(a) Height of Antenna

The message signal has a low frequency. Ex. Voice signal has the frequency from 20Hz-20KHz. We know that, where c = speed of light

γ = frequency

λ = wavelength

$$c = \gamma \lambda$$

Since frequency of message signal is less, its wavelength will be large.

Antenna height is given as, Height = $\lambda / 4$

Therefore, the antenna height will be large which is practically impossible. After modulation with a high frequency carrier, the frequency will be large. Hence less wavelength and therefore antenna height will be small.

(b) Energy Since,

where E = energy

h = Planck's constant

γ = frequency

$$E = h \gamma$$

Message signal has less frequency. Hence the energy will be less. Therefore, the signals will not be able to travel long distances. They will die out because of less energy. After modulation with a high frequency carrier, the frequency will be large. Hence energy will be more. Therefore, with increase in the frequency, signals can travel longer distance.

(c) Mixing of signals

Voice and music signals are in range of audio frequency i.e. 20Hz to 20KHz, if different message signals are transmitted from the different transmitters, ex. $m_1(t) \rightarrow 20\text{Hz}-20\text{KHz}$ $m_2(t) \rightarrow 20\text{Hz}-20\text{KHz}$ $m_3(t) \rightarrow 20\text{Hz}-20\text{KHz}$ all the signals will interfere with each other because of the same frequency range. Hence receiver will not be able to separate the message signals. To avoid the interference, the information of message signal is converted to different high frequency band so that they occupy different slots in frequency domain.

(d) Multiplexing

Multiplexing means mixing of signals i.e. more than two signals can be transmitted over the same communication channel simultaneously. Hence many signals use the same channel without any interference with each other

Multiplexing is the set of techniques that allows the simultaneous transmission of multiple signals across a single data link. Whenever the transmission capacity of a medium linking two devices is greater than the transmission needs of the devices, the link can be shared in order to maximize the utilization of the link, such as one cable can carry a hundred channels of TV.

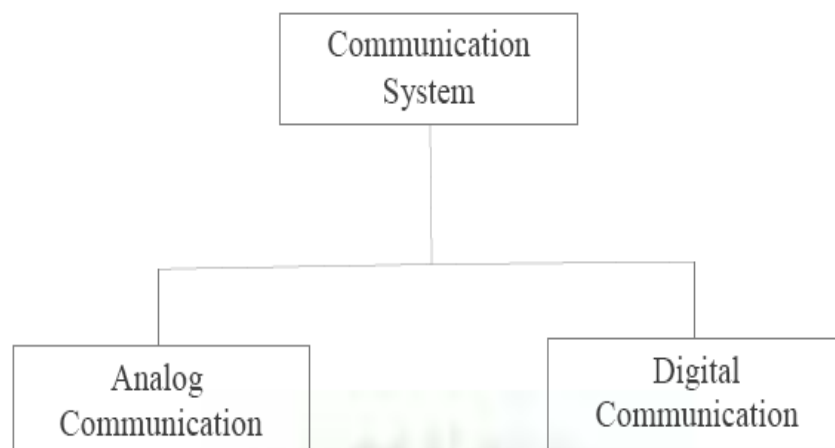
Type of multiplexing:-

There are two basic techniques:

1. Frequency-Division Multiplexing (FDM)
2. Time-Division Multiplexing (TDM)
 - Synchronous TDM
 - A-Synchronous TDM

Classification of Communication System:-

Based on the nature of the message signal, the communication system can be classified into two categories:

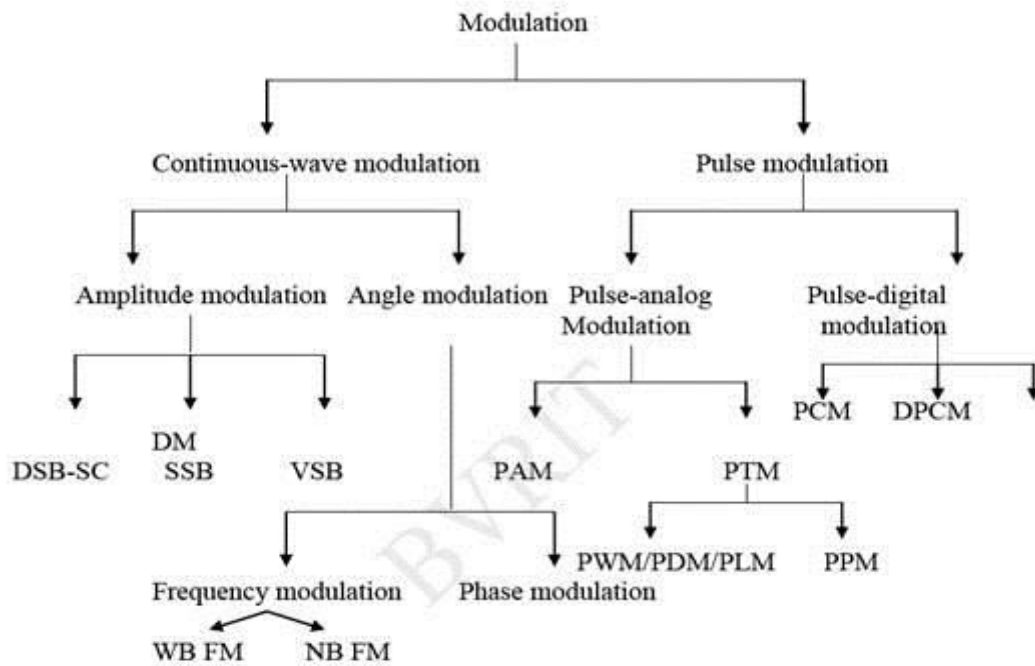


a. Analog Communication:-

In this technique, message to be transmitted is continuous i.e analog in nature. An analog signal is a variable signal which is continuous in both time and amplitude. It is modulated by a high frequency carrier signal. One of the parameters of the carrier signal like amplitude, phase, frequency is varied according to the instantaneous value of the message signal. It can transmit data including voice, image, video etc.

b. Digital Communication:-

In this, the message to be transmitted is in the form of digits 0 and 1 with constant amplitude, constant frequency and constant phase. Both time and amplitude are discrete in nature.

Types of modulation:

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|---------------------------------|----------|-------|
| Q.1 | What is the need of modulation? | DEC 2013 | 7 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-02

AMPLITUDE MODULATION, FREQUENCY SPECTRUM

AMPLITUDE MODULATION:-

A modulation process in which amplitude of the carrier is varied in accordance with the instantaneous value of the modulating signal is known as amplitude modulation.

There are four types of amplitude modulation

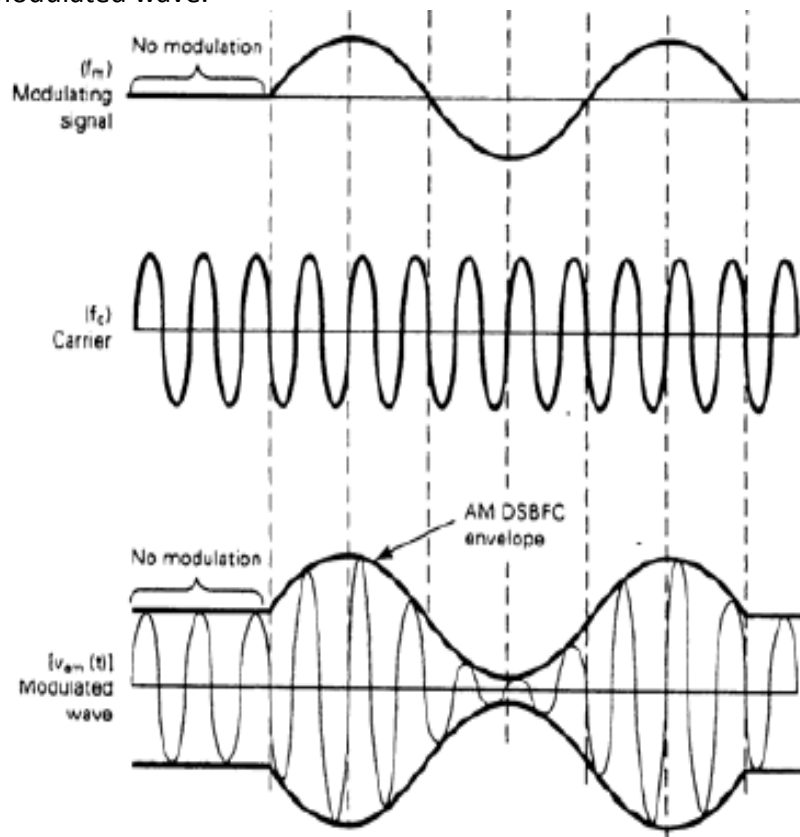
1. DSB-FC (Double Sideband full Carrier)/DSB-LC (Double Sideband large carrier)/AM-FC /AM-LC/ conventional AM or simply AM.
2. DSB-SC (Double Sideband Suppress Carrier)
3. SSB-SC (Single Sideband Suppress Carrier)
4. VSB (Vestigial Sideband)

DSB-FC (Double Sideband full Carrier)/DSB-LC (Double Sideband large carrier)/AM-FC /AM-LC/ conventional AM or simply AM:-

$V_c \sin(2\pi f_c t)$ - the carrier;

$V_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)$ - the modulating signal;

$V_{am}(t)$ - the modulated wave.



Fig(1):- AM generation

The output waveform contains all the frequencies that make up the AM signal and it is used to transport the information through the system.

Therefore, the shape of the modulated wave is called the AM envelope.

Note that with no modulating signal, the output waveform is simply the carrier signal

Example:-

A single tone modulating signal $e_m = E_m \cos \omega_m t$ amplitude modulates a carrier $e_c = E_c \cos \omega_c t$ (JUNE 2012)(7)

- (i) Derive an expression for AM wave $e(t)$.
- (ii) Derive an expression for modulation index.

Solution:-

- (i) The general expression for the AM wave is given by

$$\Phi_{AM}(t) = A \cos \omega_c t + f(t) \cos \omega_c t$$

Here $f(t) = E_m \cos \omega_m t$ and $A \cos \omega_c t = E_c \cos \omega_c t$

$$\text{Hence } e(t) = E_c \cos \omega_c t + E_m \cos \omega_m t \cos \omega_c t$$

$$e(t) = E_c [1 + (E_m/E_c) \cos \omega_m t] \cos \omega_c t$$

$$e(t) = E_c [1 + m_a \cos \omega_m t] \cos \omega_c t$$

where $m_a = E_m/E_c$ is the modulation index

- (ii) the modulation index $m_a = E_m/E_c$

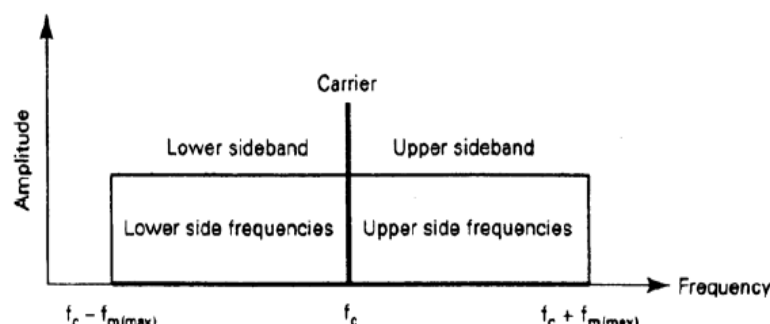
AM Frequency Spectrum and Bandwidth:-

An AM modulator is a nonlinear device. Therefore, nonlinear mixing occurs and the output envelope is a complex wave made up of a dc voltage, the carrier frequency, and the sum ($f_c + f_m$) and difference ($f_c - f_m$) frequencies (that is, the cross products). The sum and difference frequencies are displaced from the carrier frequency by an amount equal to the modulating signal frequency.

Therefore, an AM signal spectrum contains frequency components spaced f_m Hz on either side of the carrier. The modulated wave does not contain a frequency component that is equal to the modulating signal frequency. The effect of modulation is to translate the modulating signal in the frequency domain so that it is reflected symmetrically about the carrier frequency.

The bandwidth (B) of an AM DSB-FC wave is equal to,

$$B = 2 f_{m \text{ max.}}$$



Fig(2):- Frequency Spectrum of an AM DSB-FC WAVE

MODULATION INDEX:-

the relationship between the amplitude of the modulating signal and the amplitude of the carrier signal is important. This relationship, known as the *modulation index* m or ma (also called the modulating factor or coefficient, or the degree of modulation), is the ratio

$$m = \frac{V_m}{V_c}$$

Or

$$m = \frac{E_m}{E_c}$$

These are the peak values of the signals, and the carrier voltage is the unmodulated value. Multiplying the modulation index by 100 gives the

Percentage Of Modulation.

$$M = \frac{E_m}{E_c} \times 100$$

Example,

if the carrier voltage is 9 V and the modulating signal voltage is 7.5 V, then calculate modulation index.

Solution:-

Given $V_m = E_m = 7.5 \text{ v}$

$V_c = E_c = 9 \text{ v}$

$$m = \frac{V_m}{V_c}$$

modulation factor is $m = 7.5 / 9 = 0.8333$

and the percentage of modulation is $M = 0.833 \times 100 = 83.33$.

Over modulation and Distortion ($ma > 1$):-

The modulation index should be a number between 0 and 1. If the amplitude of the Modulating voltage is higher than the carrier voltage; m will be greater than 1, causing *distortion* of the modulated waveform. If the distortion is great enough, the intelligence signal becomes unintelligible. Distortion of voice transmissions produces garbled, harsh, or unnatural sounds in the speaker. Distortion of video signals produces a scrambled and inaccurate picture on a TV screen.

Simple distortion is illustrated in Fig 3(a). Here a sine wave information signal is modulating a sine wave carrier, but the modulating voltage is much greater than the carrier voltage, resulting in a condition called over modulation.

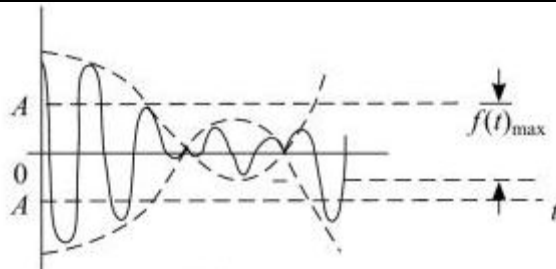


Fig3(a):- AM with $m_a > 1$ or $|f(t)|_{\max} > A$

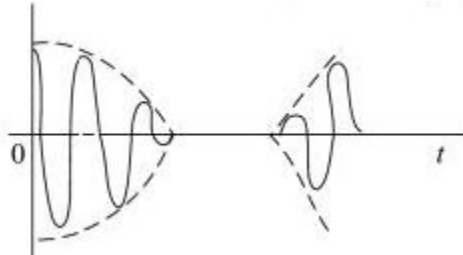


Fig3(b):- Overmodulated AM as observed on CRO.

Ideal Modulation ($m_a = 1$) 100% modulation:-

If the amplitude of the modulating signal is less Than the carrier amplitude, no distortion will occur shown in Fig 3(c).

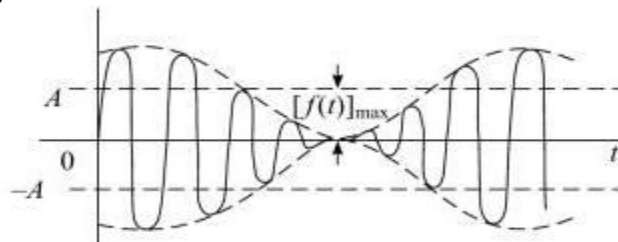


Fig3(c):- AM with $m_a = 1$ or $|f(t)|_{\max} = A$ ($V_m = V_c$)

Under Modulation ($m_a < 1$):-

The ideal condition for AM is When $V_m = V_c$ or , $m = 1$, which gives 100 percent modulation. This results in the greatest output power at the transmitter and the greatest output voltage at the receiver, With no distortion illustrated in Fig 3(d).

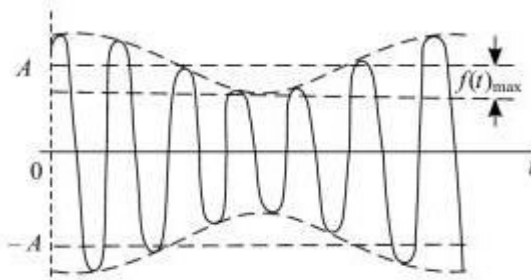


Fig3(d):- AM with $m_a < 1$ or $|f(t)|_{\max} < A$ ($V_m < V_c$)

Another technique of calculation of Modulation Index and Percentage of Modulation:-

The modulation index can be determined by measuring the actual values of the modulation voltage and the carrier voltage and computing the ratio. However, it is more common to compute the modulation index from measurements taken on the composite modulated wave itself. When the AM signal is displayed on an oscilloscope, the modulation index can be computed from V_{\max} and V_{\min} as shown in Fig.4. The peak value of the modulating signal is V_m one-half the difference of the peak and trough values:

$$V_m = \frac{V_{\max} - V_{\min}}{2}$$

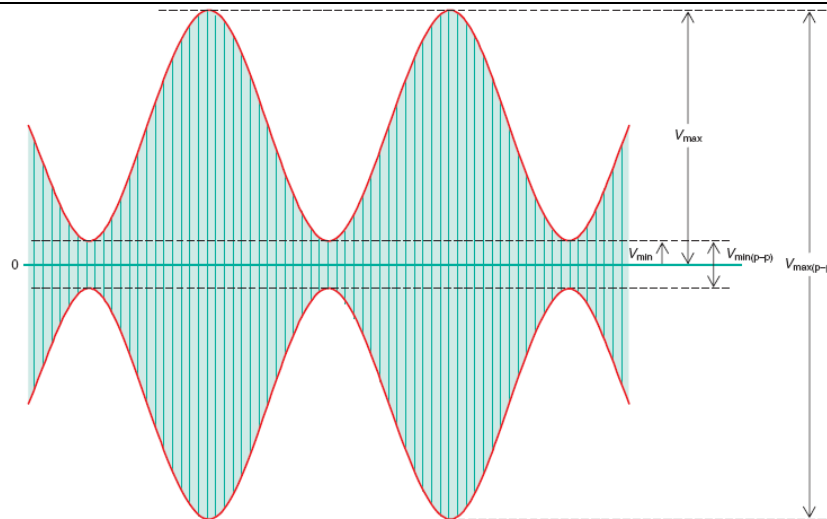


Fig 4:- An AM wave showing peaks (V_{\max}) and troughs (V_{\min})

As shown in Fig., V_{\max} is the peak value of the signal during modulation, and V_{\min} is the lowest value, or trough, of the modulated wave. The V_{\max} is one-half the peak-to-peak value of the AM signal, or $V_{\max} - V_{\min} = V_{\max(p-p)}/2$. Subtracting V_{\min} from V_{\max} produces the peak-to-peak value of the modulating signal. One-half of that, of course, is simply the peak value.

The peak value of the carrier signal V_c is the average of the V_{\max} and V_{\min} and values:

$$V_c = \frac{V_{\max} + V_{\min}}{2}$$

The modulation index is

$$m = \frac{V_{\max} - V_{\min}}{V_{\max} + V_{\min}}$$

The modulation index or depth, of AM is more commonly expressed as the percentage of modulation rather than as a fractional value. the percentage of modulation is $100 \times m$,

Example:-

In an AM signal the $V_{\max(p-p)}$ value read from the graticule on the oscilloscope screen is 5.9 divisions and $V_{\min(p-p)}$ is 1.2 divisions.

a. What is the modulation index?

b. Calculate V_c , V_m , and m if the vertical scale is 2 V per division.

Solution:-

$$M = \frac{V_{\max} - V_{\min}}{V_{\max} + V_{\min}} = \frac{5.9 - 1.2}{5.9 + 1.2} = \frac{4.7}{7.1} = 0.662$$

$$V_c = \frac{V_{\max} + V_{\min}}{2} = \frac{5.9 + 1.2}{2} = \frac{7.1}{2} = 3.55 @ \frac{2 \text{ V}}{\text{div}}$$

$$V_c = 3.55 \times 2 \text{ V} = 7.1 \text{ V}$$

$$V_m = \frac{V_{\max} - V_{\min}}{2} = \frac{5.9 - 1.2}{2} = \frac{4.7}{2}$$

$$= 2.35 @ \frac{2 \text{ V}}{\text{div}}$$

$$V_m = 2.35 \times 2 \text{ V} = 4.7 \text{ V}$$

$$m = \frac{V_m}{V_c} = \frac{4.7}{7.1} = 0.662$$

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|---|-----------|-------|
| Q.1 | A single tone modulating signal $e_m = E_m \cos \omega_m t$ amplitude modulates a carrier $e_c = E_c \cos \omega_c t$: (i) derive an expression for AM wave $e(t)$. (ii) derive an expression for modulation index. | JUNE 2012 | 7 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-03

POWER DISTRIBUTION

AM Voltage Distribution:-**(JUNE 2010)(10)**

An unmodulated carrier can be Described mathematically as

$$v_c(t) = E_c \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

Therefore, the instantaneous amplitude of the modulated wave can be expressed as

$$v_{am}(t) = [E_c + E_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)] [\sin(2\pi f_c t)] = [1 + m \sin(2\pi f_m t)] [E_c \sin(2\pi f_c t)]$$

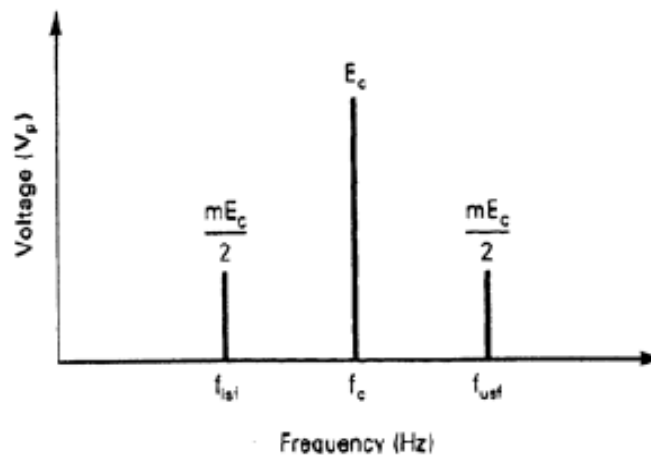


Fig 5:-Voltage spectrum for an DSB-FC

$$v_{am}(t) = E_c \sin(2\pi f_c t) - \frac{mE_m}{2} \cos[2\pi(f + f_m)t] + \frac{mE_m}{2} \cos[2\pi(f - f_m)t]$$

AM Power Distribution:-

The average power dissipated in a load by an unmodulated carrier is equal to the rms carrier voltage squared, divided by the load resistance.

Mathematically, power in an unmodulated carrier is

$$P_c = \frac{(0.707E_c)^2}{R} = \frac{E_c^2}{2R}$$

The upper and lower sideband powers are expressed mathematically as:

$$P_{usb} = P_{lsb} = \frac{(mE_c/2)^2}{2R} = \frac{m^2 P_c}{4}$$

The total power in an amplitude-modulated wave is equal to the sum of the powers of the carrier, the upper sideband, and the lower sideband:

$$P_t = P_c + P_{usb} + P_{lsb}$$

The total power in an AM signal when the carrier power and the percentage of modulation are known:

$$P_T = P_c \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right)$$

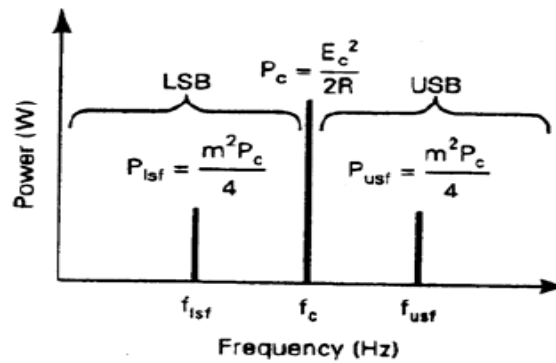


Fig 6:-Power Spectrum for an AM DSBFC wave with a single-frequency modulating signal

- Note that with 100% modulation the maximum power in the upper or lower sideband is equal to only one-fourth the power in the carrier.
- Thus, the maximum total sideband power is equal to one-half the carrier power.
- One of the most significant disadvantages of AM DSBFC transmission is the fact that the information is contained in the sidebands although most of the power is wasted in the carrier.
- Actually, the power in the carrier is not totally wasted because it does allow for the use of relatively simple, inexpensive demodulator circuits in the receiver, which is the predominant advantage of AM DSBFC.

Example:-

A carrier $A \cos \omega_c t$ is modulated by a single tone modulating signal $f(t) = E_m \cos \omega_m t$. Find

- Total modulated power
- RMS (root mean square) value of the modulated signal, and
- Transmission efficiency for a 100 percent modulation.

Solution:-

i) Carrier power (unmodulated) $P_c = \text{mean square value of } A \cos \omega_c t = A^2/2$

Sideband power $P_s = E_m^2/4$

Total power P is the sum of P_c and P_s

$$P_t = P_c + P_s$$

$$P_t = A^2/2 + E_m^2/4$$

$$P_t = A^2/2 [1 + \frac{1}{2} (E_m/A)^2]$$

Putting $E_m/A = m_a$ and $A^2/2 = P_c$

$$\text{Total modulated power } P = P_c [1 + \frac{1}{2} (m_a)^2]$$

Where m_a is the modulation index

$$P_t = P_c + P_c (m_a)^2/2$$

Where second term $P_c (m_a)^2/2$ is known as sideband power

ii) The rms value is under root of the ms value (power) of the AM signal

$$V_{rms} = \sqrt{P} = \sqrt{P_c (1 + \frac{m_a^2}{2})}$$

Now, $\sqrt{P_c} = V_{c_{rms}}$ by putting

$$V_{rms} = V_{c_{rms}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{m_a^2}{2}}$$

(i) Transmission efficiency is given by

$$\text{Eff} = (\text{useful power} / \text{total power}) \times 100$$

$$\text{Eff} = (\text{side band power} / \text{total power}) \times 100$$

$$\text{Eff} = (P_s / P_t) \times 100$$

$$\text{Eff} = (P_c(m_a)^2/2 / P_c [1 + \frac{1}{2} (m_a)^2]) \times 100$$

$$\text{Eff} = [(m_a)^2 / (2 + (m_a)^2)] \times 100$$

For a 100 percent modulation $m_a = 1$

$$\text{Eff} = 1^2 / [2 + 1^2] \times 100$$

$$\text{Eff} = (1/3) \times 100$$

$$\text{Eff} = 33.3\%$$

It means for a 100 percent modulation the sidebands carry only one third of the total power. This is the maximum power which can be carried by the sidebands in AM. If m_a is less than 100 percent the sideband power will be further reduced.

Example:-

if the carrier of an AM transmitter is 1000 W and it is modulated 100 percent. Find the total power and sideband power.

Solution:-

Given $P_c = 1000\text{W}$ and $m_a = 1$

the total AM power is Of the total power

$$P_T = P_c \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right)$$

$$P_T = 1000 \left(1 + \frac{1^2}{2} \right) = 1500 \text{ W}$$

1000 W of it is in the carrier. That leaves 500 W in both sidebands. Since the sidebands are equal in size, each sideband has 250 W. For a 100 percent modulated AM transmitter, the total sideband power is always one-half that of the carrier power.

$$P_{sb} = 500 \text{ W}$$

$$P_{lsb} = P_{usb} = 250$$

It is also calculated by formule

$$P_{usb} = P_{lsb} = \frac{(mE_c / 2)^2}{2R} = \frac{m^2 P_c}{4}$$

$$P_{lsb} = P_{usb} = (1^2 \times 1000) / 4 = 1000/4 = 250 \text{ w}$$

Example:- A 50-kW transmitter carrier that is 100 percent modulated will have a sideband power of 25 kW, with 12.5 kW in each sideband. Calculate The total Power.

Solution:-

Carrier Power $P_c = 50 \text{ kW}$

Modulation index $m_a = 1$

Sideband power $P_{sb} = 25 \text{ kW}$

Upper sideband / Lower sideband Power $P_{lsb} = P_{usb} = 12.5 \text{ W}$

Total power $P_t = P_c + P_{sb} = 50 + 25 = 75 \text{ kW}$

When the percentage of modulation is less than the optimum 100, there is much less power in the sidebands.

Example:-

An AM transmitter has a carrier power of 30 W. The percentage of modulation is 85 percent. Calculate (a) the total power and (b) the power in one sideband.

Solution:-

$$\text{a. } P_T = P_c \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right) = 30 \left[1 + \frac{(0.85)^2}{2} \right] = 30 \left(1 + \frac{0.7225}{2} \right)$$

$$P_T = 30(1.36125) = 40.8 \text{ W}$$

$$\text{b. } P_{SB} (\text{both}) = P_T - P_c = 40.8 - 30 = 10.8 \text{ W}$$

$$P_{SB} (\text{one}) = \frac{P_{SB}}{2} = \frac{10.8}{2} = 5.4 \text{ W}$$

Example:- For a 70 percent modulated 250-W carrier, find the total power and power in each sideband.

Solution:-

Given P_c (Carrier power) = 250W

m_a (Modulation Index) = 0.7

$$P_T = P_c \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right)$$

$$P_T = 250 \left(1 + \frac{0.7^2}{2} \right) = 250(1 + 0.245) = 311.25 \text{ W}$$

P_T (Total power) = 311.25 W

As we know

Total power = Carrier Power + Side band Power

$$P_T = P_c + P_{sb}$$

$$311.25 = 250 + P_{sb}$$

$$P_{sb} = 311.25 - 250$$

P_{sb} (Side band Power) = 61.25

Power in each sideband ($P_{lsb} = P_{usb}$) = $61.25/2 = 30.625$

it is difficult to determine AM power by measuring the output voltage and calculating the power with the expression $P = V^2/R$.

However, it is easy to measure the current in the load. For example, you can use an RF ammeter connected in series with an antenna to observe antenna current. When the antenna impedance is

known, the output power is easily calculated by using the formula

$$P_T = I_T^2 R$$

where $I_T = I_c \sqrt{1 + m^2/2}$. Here I_c is the un modulated carrier current in the load, and m is the modulation index.

Example:-

The total output power of an 85 percent modulated AM transmitter, whose unmodulated carrier current into a antenna load impedance is 10 A. Calculate Total carrier power.

Solution:-

Given $m_a = 0.85$

$I_c = 10\text{amp}$

$$I_T = I_c \sqrt{1 + m^2/2}$$

$$I_T = 10 \sqrt{1 + \frac{0.85^2}{2}} = 10 \sqrt{1.36125} = 11.67 \text{ A}$$

$$P_T = 11.67^2(50) = 136.2(50) = 6809 \text{ W}$$

One way to find the percentage of modulation is to measure both the modulated and the unmodulated antenna currents. Then, by algebraically rearranging the formula above, m can be calculated directly:

$$m = \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{I_T}{I_c} \right)^2 - 1 \right]}$$

Example:-

The unmodulated antenna current is 2.2 A. That is the current produced by the carrier only, or Now, if the modulated antenna current is 2.6 A, Find the modulation index.

Solution:-

$$m = \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{I_T}{I_c} \right)^2 - 1 \right]}$$

$$m = \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{2.6}{2.2} \right)^2 - 1 \right]} = \sqrt{2[(1.18)^2 - 1]} = \sqrt{0.7934} = 0.89$$

Example:-

An antenna has an impedance of 40Ω . An unmodulated AM signal produces a current of 4.8 A. The modulation is 90 percent. Calculate

- (a) the carrier power,
- (b) the total power, and
- (c) the sideband power.

Solution:-

$$\text{a. } P_c = I_c^2 R = (4.8)^2 (40) = (23.04)(40) = 921.6 \text{ W}$$

$$\text{b. } I_T = I_c \sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}} = 4.8 \sqrt{1 + \frac{(0.9)^2}{2}} = 4.8 \sqrt{1 + \frac{0.81}{2}}$$

$$I_T = 4.8 \sqrt{1.405} = 5.7 \text{ A}$$

$$P_T = I_T^2 R = (5.7)^2 (40) = 32.49(40) = 1295 \text{ W}$$

$$\text{c. } P_{SB} = P_T - P_c = 1295 - 921.6 = 373.4 \text{ W (186.7 W each sideband)}$$

Example:-

The transmitter experiences an antenna current change from 4.8 A unmodulated to 5.1 A. What is the percentage of modulation?

Solution:-

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{I_T}{I_c} \right)^2 - 1 \right]} \\ &= \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{5.1}{4.8} \right)^2 - 1 \right]} \\ &= \sqrt{2[(1.0625)^2 - 1]} \\ &= \sqrt{2(1.13 - 1)} \\ &= \sqrt{2(0.13)} \\ &= \sqrt{0.26} \\ m &= 0.51 \end{aligned}$$

The percentage of modulation is 51.

Example:-

Find total modulated power, sideband power and net modulation index for the AM signal

$$\varphi_{AM} = 10 \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^6 t) + 5 \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^6 t) \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^3 t) + 2 \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^6 t) \cos(4\pi \cdot 10^3 t)$$

Solution:-

$$\varphi_{AM} = 10 \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^6 t) + 5 \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^6 t) \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^3 t) + 2 \cos(2\pi \cdot 10^6 t) \cos(4\pi \cdot 10^3 t)$$

The expression can be written as

$$\phi_{AM} = 10[1 + 0.5 \cos 2\pi \cdot 10^3 t + 0.2 \cos 4\pi \cdot 10^3 t] \cos 2\pi \cdot 10^6 t$$

The signal is equivalent to the expression

$$\phi_{AM} = A[1 + m_1 \cos \omega_1 t + m_2 \cos \omega_2 t] \cos \omega_c t$$

Here

$$A = 10 \text{ V}, m_1 = 0.5, \text{ and } m_2 = 0.2$$

Unmodulated carrier power

$$P_c = \frac{A^2}{2} = \frac{10^2}{2} = 50 \text{ W}$$

The power of the modulated signal is given by

$$P = P_c \left(1 + \frac{m_1^2 + m_2^2}{2} \right) = 50 \left(1 + \frac{0.25 + 0.04}{2} \right) = 57.25 \text{ W}$$

Sideband power

$$P_s = P - P_c = 57.25 - 50 = 7.25 \text{ W.}$$

Net modulation index m is given by

$$m = \sqrt{m_1^2 + m_2^2} = \sqrt{0.5^2 + 0.2^2} = 0.539$$

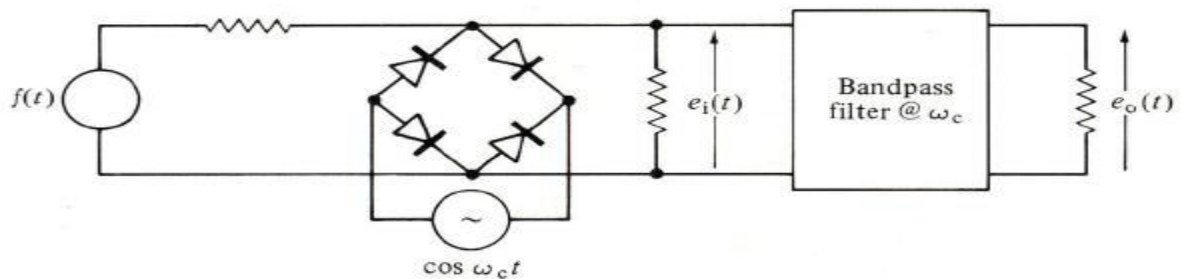
| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|---|-----------|-------|
| Q.1 | Prove that after amplitude modulation, the carrier power increases from P_c to $P_c (1 + m_a^2/2)$ where m_a is the modulation index. | JUNE 2010 | 10 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-04

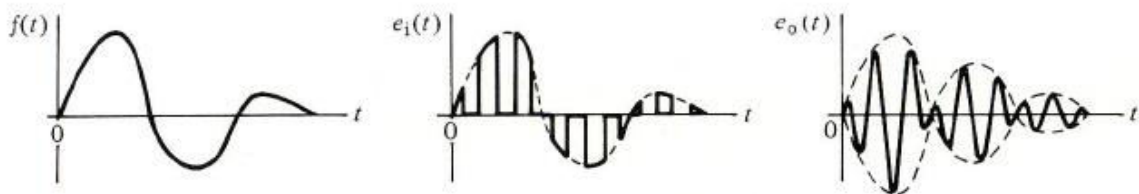
BALANCE/CHOPPER MODULATOR

Generation of DSB-SC:-**Chopper type balanced modulator/Ring Modulator:-**

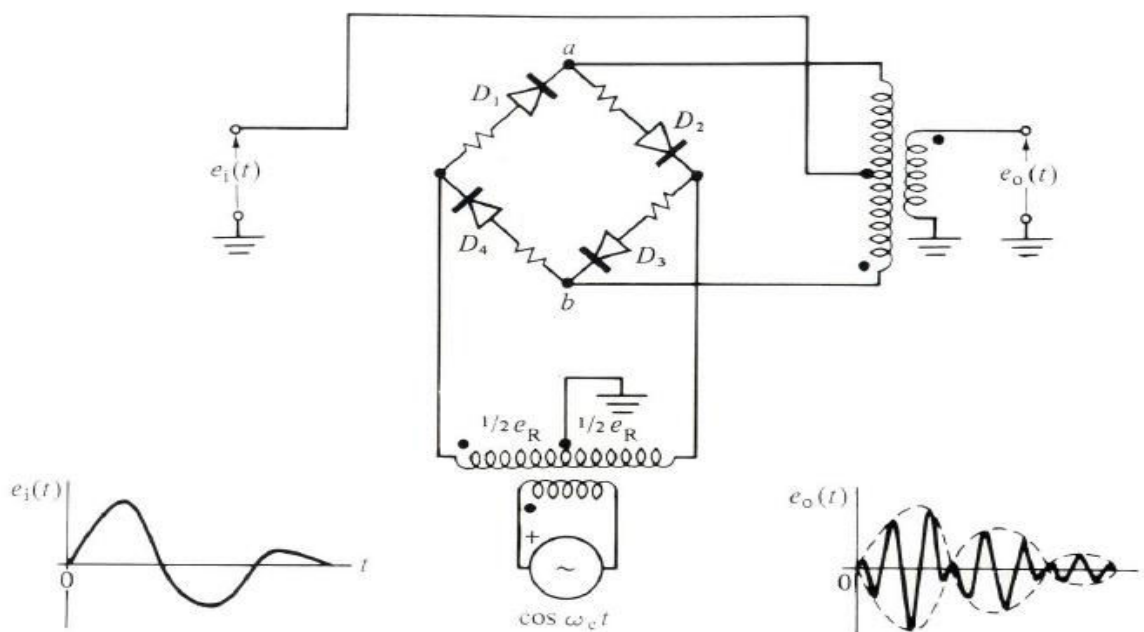
The chopper modulator The chopper modulator or ring modulator is a common type of modulator. A diagram is shown below



$\cos(\omega_c t)$ is a square wave. During the positive half cycle $f(t)$ is switched on to the other side. When $\cos(\omega_c t)$ is 0 the waveform is switched off. The bandpass filter will remove higher frequency components which are not needed. The corresponding waveforms are shown below



This is a theoretical model of a chopper modulator. A popular configuration is the double-balanced ring modulator. The modulator is popular as it does not require ideal components, provided that they have matched characteristics (i.e. use the same part numbers).



Assuming that $e_i(t)$ is 0. During the positive half cycles diodes D1 and D2 will conduct and the point a is connected to the output transformer secondary. If the secondary of the reference transformer is accurately centre tapped and if the impedances of D1 and D2 are identical then no current will flow through the output transformer and no voltage will be developed at the output. During the next half cycle D3 and D4 conduct and point b is connected to the input through the opposite half cycle of the output transformer secondary. Again no current will flow and no output will result. Thus we see that the carrier is suppressed.

Now let $e_i(t)$ have the modulating input. Let us apply a positive polarity input signal whose peak amplitude is much smaller than that of the reference e_R . On the positive half-cycles of $\cos \omega_c t$, point a is essentially at ground potential and a current will flow upward through half of the output transformer secondary, inducing a positive output voltage. On the negative half-cycles of $\cos \omega_c t$, point b is essentially at ground potential and a current will flow downward through the opposite half of the output transformer secondary, inducing a negative output voltage.

The peak positive and negative output voltages will be identical for a given fixed signal amplitude if the output transformer is accurately centre tapped. Therefore we have developed a signal that alternates in sign at a rate determined by the carrier frequency and whose amplitude is proportional to the input signal amplitude. For DSB-SC modulation to occur

$$[e_i(t)]_{\max} < \frac{1}{2}[e_R(t)]_{\max}$$

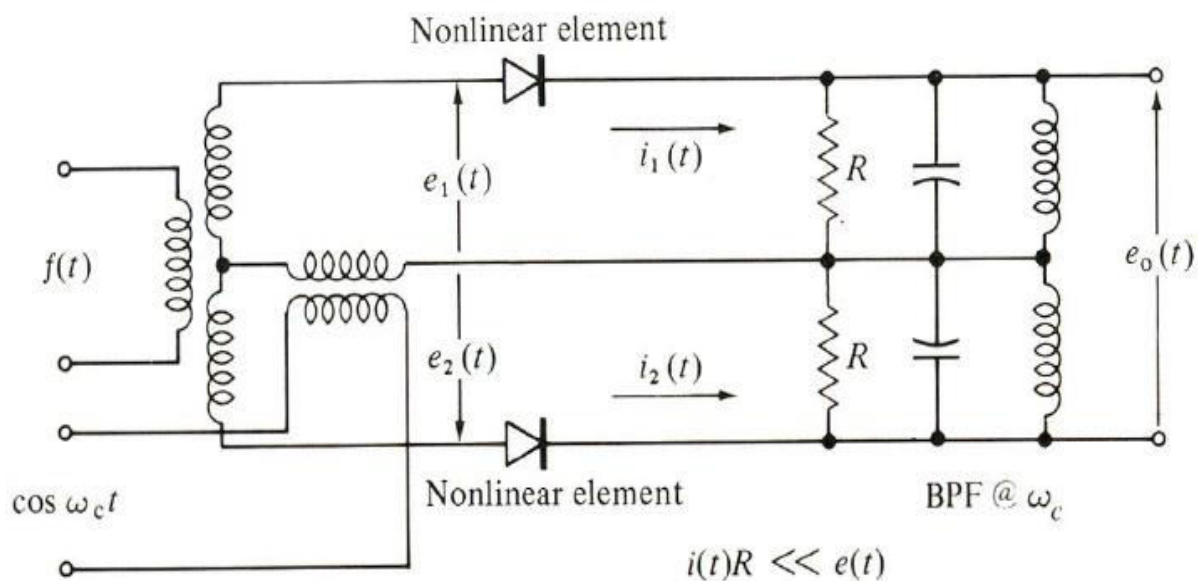
In practice, an imbalance between diode characteristics and inaccuracies in the transformer centre taps will result in non-ideal performance and carrier leakage. Balancing controls can be added to fully tune out carrier leakage.

Non linear devices:-

Balanced Modulator:-

(DEC 2013)(7)

Amplitude modulation can also arise in non linear systems. Diodes are good examples of non linear devices and may be used as a modulator. The following balanced modulator uses non linear devices to generate a DSB-SC AM.



The non linearity can be approximated by the following power series

$$i(t) = a_1 e(t) + a_2 e^2(t) + a_3 e^3(t) + \dots$$

Referring to the above figure. By the transformer actions

$$e_1(t) = \cos \omega_c t + f(t)$$

$$e_2(t) = \cos \omega_c t - f(t)$$

Retaining up to the power of $e^2(t)$ the current then becomes

$$i_1(t) = a_1 [\cos \omega_c t + f(t)] + a_2 [\cos \omega_c t + f(t)]^2$$

$$i_2(t) = a_1 [\cos \omega_c t - f(t)] + a_2 [\cos \omega_c t - f(t)]^2$$

For a resistive load the net voltage is $[i_1(t) - i_2(t)]R$ the output is

$$[i_1(t) - i_2(t)]R = 4a_2 R \left[f(t) \cos \omega_c t + \frac{a_1}{2a_2} f(t) \right]$$

The output at the BPF centered around ω_c is given by

$$e_o(t) = 4a_2 R f(t) \cos \omega_c t$$

$$e_o(t) = k f(t) \cos \omega_c t$$

this is the desired expression for AM-SC or DSB-SC

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|---|----------|-------|
| Q.1 | Write short note on balanced modulator. | DEC 2013 | 7 |
| Q.2 | With the help of a circuit diagram, explain the working of Balance Modulator for DSB-SC generation. | DEC 2010 | 10 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-05

SSB GENERATOR (PHASE AND FREQUENCY DISCRIMINATION METHOD), VSB TRANSMISSION

Single Side Band (SSB) Modulation:-

In DSB-SC it is observed that there is symmetry in the band structure. So, even if one half is transmitted, the other half can be recovered at the receiver. By doing so, the bandwidth and power of transmission is reduced by half. Depending on which half of DSB-SC signal is transmitted,

there are two types of SSB modulation

1. Lower Side Band (LSB) Modulation
2. Upper Side Band (USB) Modulation

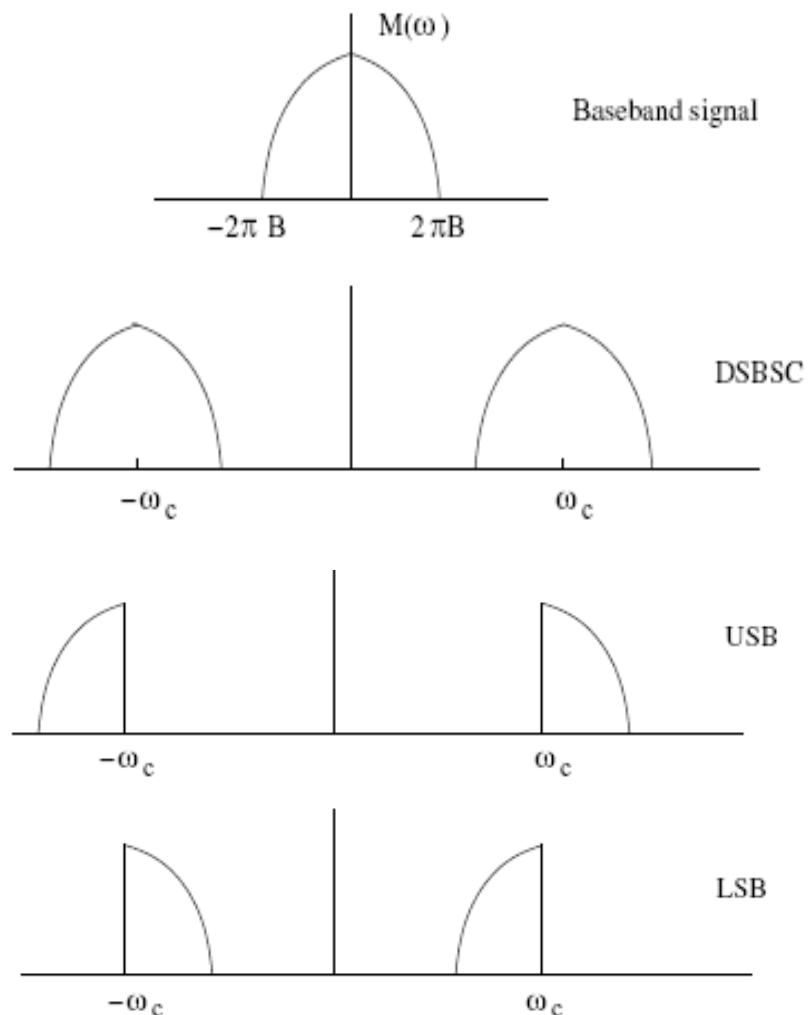


Fig 12:- SSB signals from original signal

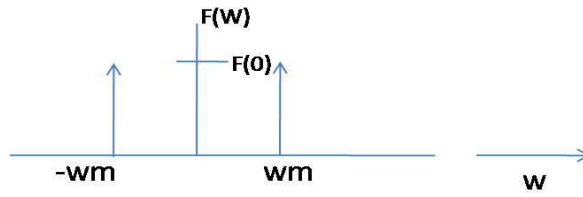


Fig 13(a):- Spectrum of $\cos wmt$

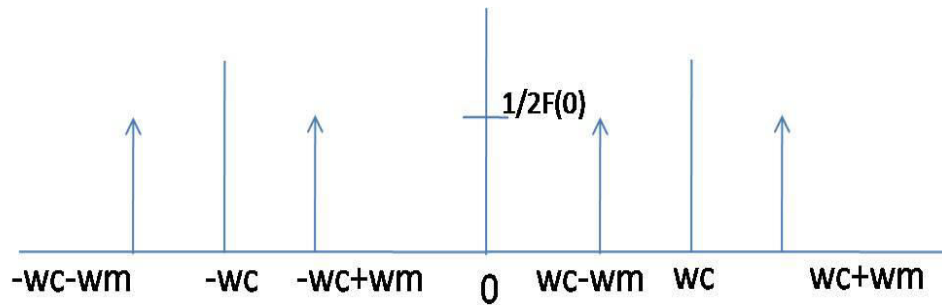


Fig 13(b) :- Spectrum of AM-SC

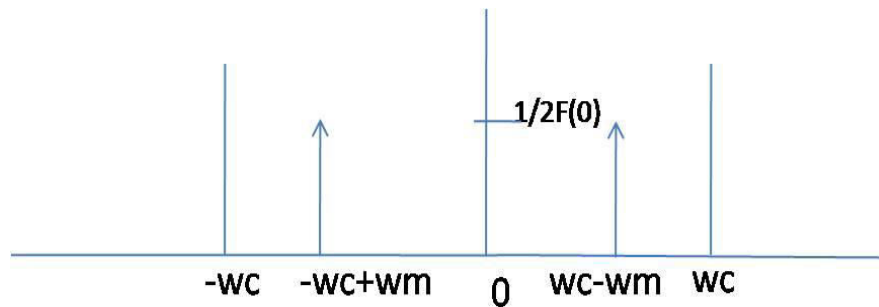


Fig 13(c) :- Spectrum of SSB-SC with lower sideband

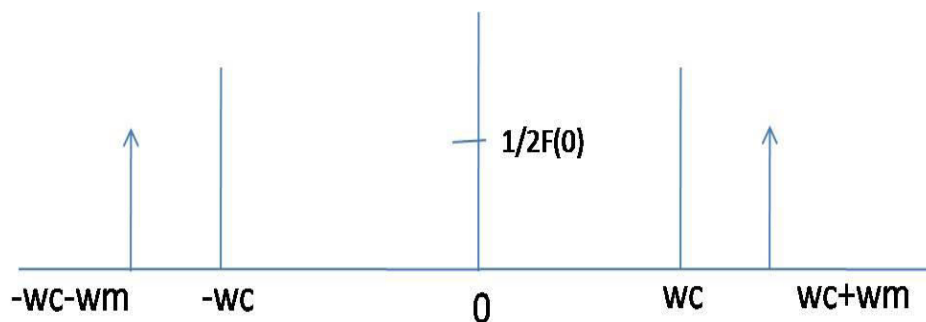


Fig 13(d) :- Spectrum of SSB-SC with upper sideband

Consider a single tone modulating signal is given by $F(t) = \cos wmt$

The spectrum of this modulating signal is a pair of impulses at $w=+wm$ and $w=-wm$ as shown

in above fig (a) .let this signal modulate a carrier $\cos w_c t$, the resulting AM-SC (DSB-SC) spectrum is shown in (b) . in order to get the SSB-SC waveform ,one of the sideband is eliminated. Fig (c) represented the spectrum of SSb-SC with lower sidebands. It is obvious from the spectrum that this corresponds to a time domain signal $\cos (w_c - w_m)t$, since the spectrum of cosine function consists of two impulses in its frequency domain. thus the SSb-SC (lower sideband) signal may be expressed as

$$\cos(w_c - w_m)t = \cos w_m t \cos w_c t + \sin w_m t \sin w_c t \quad \text{.....(i)}$$

similarly,the expression for the single tone SSB-SC with upper sidebands (fig:d) may be given as

$$\cos(w_c + w_m)t = \cos w_m t \cos w_c t - \sin w_m t \sin w_c t \quad \text{.....(ii)}$$

equation (i) and (ii) may be combined to be written as

$$\Phi_{ssb}(t) = \cos w_m t \cos w_c t (+ -) \sin w_m t \sin w_c t \quad \text{.....(iii)}$$

Where (+) sign indicated the lower sideband and (-) sign indicates the upper sideband.

The terms $\sin w_m t$ and $\sin w_c t$ may be written as

$$\sin w_m t = \cos (w_m t - \pi/2) \quad \text{.....(iv)}$$

$$\sin w_c t = \cos (w_c t - \pi/2) \quad \text{.....(v)}$$

thus, the sine terms can be obtained from the corresponding terms, by giving a phase shift of $(- \pi/2)$. Equation (iii) is an expression for SSB-SC for a specific case of single tone modulation.

In equation (iii) the term $\sin w_m t$ is obtained by giving a phase shift of $(- \pi/2)$ to the modulating frequency $\cos w_m t$.

Similarly, in a general modulating signal $f(t)$,if all the frequency components are shifted by

$(- \pi/2)$, it may lead to a SSB-SC signal.

Thus equation (iii) may be extended for a SSB-SC signal modulated by a general modulating signal $f(t)$ as given below:

$$\Phi_{ssb}(t) = f(t) \cos w_c t (+ -) f_h(t) \sin w_c t \quad \text{.....(vi)}$$

Where $f_h(t)$ is a signal obtained by shifting the phase of every component present in $f(t)$ by

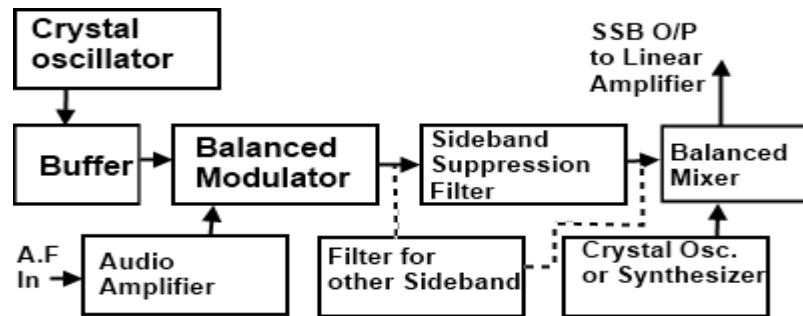
$(- \pi/2)$. Similarly equation (iii) (+) sign indicated the lower sideband and (-) sign indicates the upper sideband.

There are two methods used for SSB Transmission:-

1. Filter Method
2. Phase Shift Method

Filter Method/frequency discrimination method:-

This is the filter method of SSB suppression for the transmission. Fig



illustrates the block diagram of this method.

1. A crystal controlled master oscillator produces a stable carrier frequency f_c (say 100 KHz)
2. This carrier frequency is then fed to the balanced modulator through a buffer amplifier which isolates these two stages.
3. The audio signal from the modulating amplifier modulates the carrier in the balanced modulator. Audio frequency range is 300 to 2800 Hz. The carrier is also suppressed in this stage but allows only to pass the both side bands. (USB & LSB).
4. A band pass filter (BPF) allows only a single band either USB or LSB to pass through it. It depends on our requirements.

Let we want to pass the USB then LSB will be suppressed. In this case.

$$f_c = 100 \text{ KHz}$$

$$\text{Audio range} = 300 - 2800 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\text{USB frequency range} = f_c + 300 \text{ to } f_c + 2800$$

$$= 100000 + 300 \text{ to } 100000 + 2800$$

$$= 100300 \text{ to } 102800 \text{ Hz}$$

So this band of frequency will be passed on through the USB filter section

5. This side band is then heterodyned in the balanced mixer stage with 12 MHz frequency produced by crystal oscillator or synthesizer depends upon the requirements of our transmission. So in mixer stage, the frequency of the crystal oscillator or synthesizer is added to SSB signal. The output frequency thus being raised to the value desired for transmission.
6. Then this band is amplified in driver and power amplifier stages and then fed to the aerial for the transmission.

Advantages:- The advantages of single side band SSB transmission are as follows.

1. It allows better management of the frequency spectrum. More transmission can fit

into a given frequency range than would be possible with double side band DSB signals.

2. All of the transmitted power is message power none is dissipated as carrier power.
3. The noise content of a signal is an exponential function of the bandwidth: the noise will decrease by 3dB when the bandwidth is reduced by half. Therefore, single side band SSB signals have less noise contamination than DSB double side band.

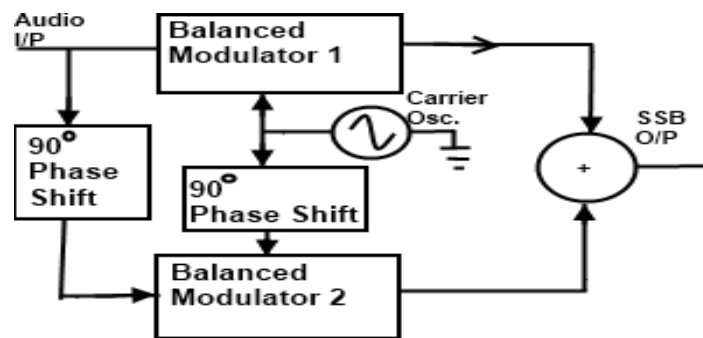
Disadvantages:-

1. The cost of a single side band SSB receiver is higher than the double side band DSB counterpart by a ratio of about 3:1.
2. The average radio user wants only to flip a power switch and dial a station. Single side band SSB receivers require several precise frequency control settings to minimize distortion and may require continual readjustment during the use of the system.

Phase Shift Method/phase discrimination method:-

(DEC 2012)(7)

The phasing method of SSB generation uses a phase shift technique that causes one of the side bands to be canceled out. A block diagram of a phasing type SSB generator is shown in fig.



1. It uses two balanced modulators instead of one. The balanced modulators effectively eliminate the carrier. The carrier oscillator is applied directly to the upper balanced modulator along with the audio modulating signal. Then both the carrier and modulating signal are shifted in phase by 90° and applied to the second, lower, balanced modulator. The two balanced modulator outputs are then added together algebraically. The phase shifting action causes one side band to be canceled out when the two balanced modulator outputs are combined.
2. The carrier signal is $V_c \sin 2\pi f_c t$ the modulating signal is $V_m \sin 2\pi f_m t$. Balanced modulator produces the product of these two signals.
 $(V_m \sin 2\pi f_m t)(V_c \sin 2\pi f_c t)$
 Applying a trigonometric identity.
 $(V_m \sin 2\pi f_m t)(V_c \sin 2\pi f_c t) = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(2\pi f_c - 2\pi f_m)t - \cos(2\pi f_c + 2\pi f_m)t]$
 Note that these are the sum and difference frequencies or the upper and lower side bands.

It is important to remember that a cosine wave is simply a sine wave shifted by 90° . A cosine

wave has exactly the same shape as a sine wave, but it occurs 90°

The 90° phase shifters create cosine waves of the carrier and modulating signal which are multiplied in balanced modulator to produce

$$(V_m - \cos 2\pi f_m t)(V_c \cos 2\pi f_c t)$$

$$(V_m - \cos 2\pi f_m t)(V_c \cos 2\pi f_c t)$$

Another common trigonometric identity translates this to

$$(V_m \cos 2\pi f_m t)(V_c \cos 2\pi f_c t) = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(2\pi f_c - 2\pi f_m)t + \cos(2\pi f_c + 2\pi f_m)t]$$

Now if you add these two expressions together the sum frequencies cancel while the difference frequencies add producing only the lower side band:

$$\cos(2\pi f_c - 2\pi f_m)t$$

Vestigial Side Band (VSB) Modulation:-

(DEC 2013)(7)

The following are the drawbacks of SSB signal generation:

1. Generation of an SSB signal is difficult.
2. Selective filtering is to be done to get the original signal back.
3. Phase shifter should be exactly tuned to 90° .

To overcome these drawbacks, VSB modulation is used. It can be viewed as a compromise between SSB and DSB-SC. Figure 14 shows all the three modulation schemes.

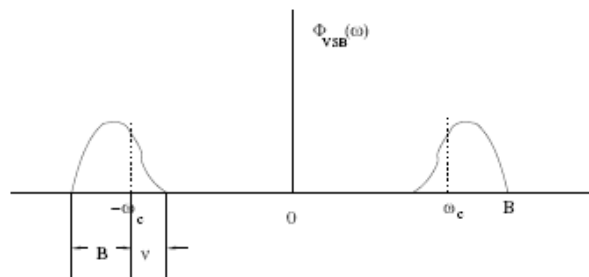


Figure 14: VSB Modulation

In VSB

1. One sideband is not rejected fully.
2. One sideband is transmitted fully and a small part (vestige) of the other sideband is transmitted.

The transmission BW is $BW = B + v$, where, v is the vestigial frequency band.

The generation of VSB signal is shown in Figure 15

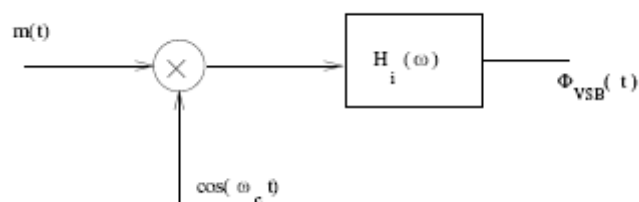


Figure 15: Block Diagram - Generation of VSB signal

Here, $H_i(\omega)$ is a filter which shapes the other sideband.

$$\Phi_{\text{VSB}}(\omega) = [M(\omega - \omega_c) + M(\omega + \omega_c)] H_i(\omega)$$

To recover the original signal from the VSB signal, the VSB signal is multiplied with $\cos(\omega_c t)$ and passed through an LPF such that original signal is recovered.

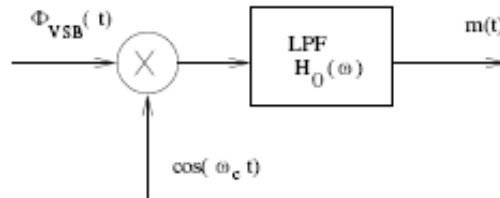


Figure 16: Block Diagram - Demodulation of VSB signal

From Figure 15 and Figure 16, the criterion to choose LPF is:

$$\begin{aligned} M(\omega) &= [\Phi_{\text{VSB}}(\omega + \omega_c) + \Phi_{\text{VSB}}(\omega - \omega_c)] H_0(\omega) \\ &= [H_i(\omega + \omega_c) + H_i(\omega - \omega_c)] \cdot M(\omega) \cdot H_0(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

$$H_0(\omega) = \frac{1}{H_i(\omega + \omega_c) + H_i(\omega - \omega_c)}$$

Application:-

Vestigial SideBand. It is a type of signal modulation (filtering) used in the television communication industry. It is used to help remove signal redundancy in Pulse Amplitude Modulated (PAM) signals.

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|---|----------------------|--------|
| Q.1 | Explain about VSB transmission in detail? | DEC 2013 DEC 2012 | 7 7 |
| Q.2 | Explain the phase discrimination method for generating SSB signals. | DEC-2012 | 7 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-06

DETECTION OF AM SIGNALS

Demodulation of AM waves:-

There are two methods to demodulate AM signals. They are:

- Square-law detector
- Envelope detector

Square-law detector:-

A Square-law modulator requires nonlinear element and a low pass filter for extracting the desired message signal. Semi-conductor diodes and transistors are the most common nonlinear devices used for implementing square law modulators. The filtering requirement is usually satisfied by using a single or double tuned filters.

When a nonlinear element such as a diode is suitably biased and operated in a restricted portion of its characteristic curve, that is, the signal applied to the diode is relatively weak, we find that transfer characteristic of diode-load resistor combination can be represented closely by a square law :

$$V_O(t) = a_1 V_i(t) + a_2 V_i^2(t) \dots\dots\dots(i)$$

Where a_1, a_2 are constants

Now, the input voltage $V_i(t)$ is the sum of both carrier and message signals

$$\text{i.e., } V_i(t) = A_c [1 + k_a m(t)] \cos 2\pi f_c t \dots\dots\dots(ii)$$

Substitute equation (ii) in equation (i) we get

$$V_O(t) = a_1 A_c [1 + k_a m(t)] \cos 2\pi f_c t + \frac{1}{2} a_2 A_c^2 [1 + 2 k_a m(t) + k_a^2 m^2(t)] \cos 4\pi f_c t \dots\dots\dots(iii)$$

Now design the low pass filter with cutoff frequency f is equal to the required message signal bandwidth. We can remove the unwanted terms by passing this output voltage $V_O(t)$ through the low pass filter and finally we will get required message signal.

$$V_O(t) = A_c^2 a_2 m(t)$$

The Fourier transform of output voltage $V_O(t)$ is given by

$$V_O(f) = A_c^2 a_2 M(f)$$

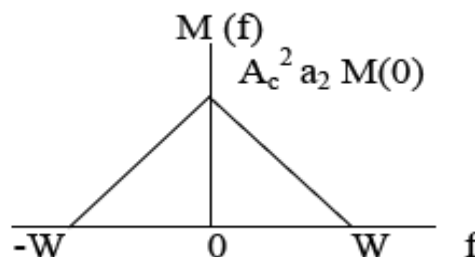
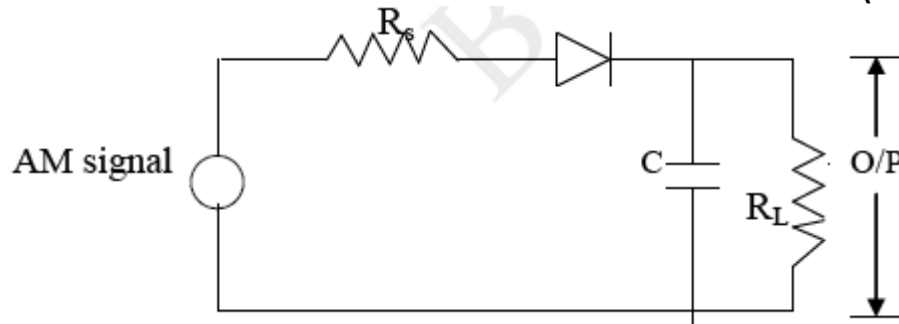


Fig 17:- Spectrum of output signal

Envelope Detector:-**(DEC 2013)(7)****Fig 18:- Envelope Detector**

Envelope detector is used to detect high level modulated levels, whereas square-law detector is used to detect low level modulated signals (i.e., below 1v). It is also based on the switching action or switching characteristics of a diode. It consists of a diode and a resistor-capacitor filter.

The operation of the envelope detector is as follows. On a positive half cycle of the input signal, the diode is forward biased and the capacitor C charges up rapidly to the peak value of the input signal. When the input signal falls below this value, the diode becomes reverse biased and the capacitor C discharges slowly through the load resistor R_L . The discharging process continues until the next positive half cycle. When the input signal becomes greater than the voltage across the capacitor, the diode conducts again and the process is repeated.

The charging time constant $R_s C$ is very small when compared to the carrier period $1/f_c$ i.e.,

$$R_s C \ll 1/f_c$$

Where R_s = internal resistance of the voltage source.

C = capacitor

f_c = carrier frequency

i.e., the capacitor C charges rapidly to the peak value of the signal. The discharging time constant RC is very large when compared to the charging time constant i.e.,

$$1/f_c \ll RC \ll 1/W$$

Where R = load resistance value

W = message signal bandwidth

i.e., the capacitor discharges slowly through the load resistor.

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|--|----------|-------|
| Q.1 | Explain envelope detector with the help of suitable circuit diagram. | DEC 2013 | 7 |

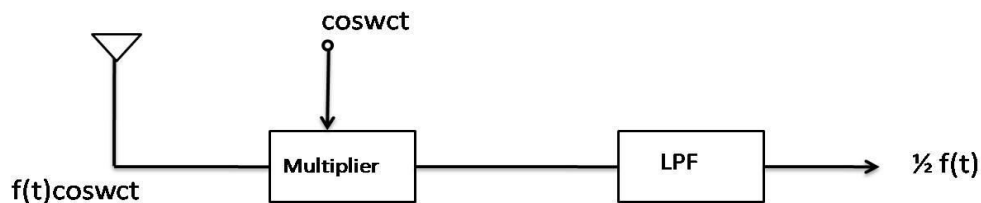
UNIT-02/LECTURE-07

SYNCHRONOUS DETECTION TECHNIQUE, ERROR IN SYNCHRONOUS DETECTION

Synchronous detection:-**(JUNE 2013)(7)**

The AM-SC system is used at the transmitter for shifting the baseband signal (with maximum frequency w_m) to a higher carrier frequency ($+wc$). This modulated signal is transmitted from the transmitter and it reaches the receiver via a propagating media. At the receiver, the original baseband signal $f(t)$ is desired to be recovered from the modulated signal. This is achieved by retranslating the baseband signal from a higher spectrum (centered around $+wc$) to the original spectrum. This process of retranslation is known as demodulation or detection. The original baseband is recovered from the modulated signal by the detection process.

A method for detecting the AM-SC signal shown in fig 20 (a), is used at the receiver end for recovery of the message signal.

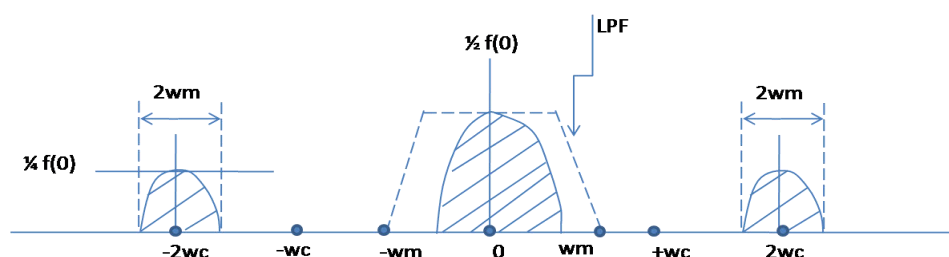
**Fig 20 (a): Block Diagram**

The method of retranslation is similar to that of translation. Here modulated signal $f(t) \cos wct$ is multiplied with $\cos wct$ and passed through a low pass filter. The signal $f(t) \cos wct$ when multiplied with $\cos wct$. Yields

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) \cos wct \cos wct &= f(t) \cos^2 wct \\ &= \frac{1}{2} f(t) [1 + \cos 2wct] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} f(t) + \frac{1}{2} f(t) \cos 2wct \end{aligned} \quad \dots\dots\dots(i)$$

It is clear from right hand side of equation (i) that the term $\frac{1}{2} f(t) \cos 2wct$ centered around $(\pm 2wc)$ can be bypassed by a low pass filter, and at the output of the low pass filter original baseband signal $\frac{1}{2} f(t)$ is recovered. The spectrum of $f(t) \cos^2 wct$ is obtained by taking Fourier transform of RHS of equation (i)

$$f(t) \cos^2 wct \longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} F(w) + \frac{1}{4} [F(w+2wc) + F(w-2wc)] \quad \dots\dots\dots(ii)$$

**Fig 20 (b): Spectrum of $f(t) \cos wct$**

The spectrum is shown in fig(b). The spectrum reveals that the original baseband signal (0 to ω_m) is present along with another spectrum centered around $(\pm 2\omega_c)$. When passed through a low pass filter (with a cutoff frequency ω_m), the original baseband signal appears at the output of the filter. The spectrum centered near $(\pm 2\omega_c)$ is not allowed to pass through low pass filter. Note that $\omega_c \gg \omega_m$ and $2\omega_c$ is still greater than ω_m , and is easily filtered out. Thus the original message signal $f(t)$ is recovered from AM-SC signal.

Effect of Phase and frequency errors in synchronous detection:-

The frequency and phase of the local oscillator signal in synchronous detection must be identical to the transmitted carrier. Any discrepancy in frequency and/or phase causes a distortion in the detected output at the receiver. Let us examine the nature of distortion Caused by phase or frequency discrepancy.

Let a modulated signal reaching the receiver the receiver signal be $f(t) \cos \omega_c t$. Assuming, a locally generated signal with frequency and phase error equal to $\Delta\omega$ and ϕ respectively, the product of the two signals in the synchronous detector yields,

$$\begin{aligned} e_d(t) &= f(t) \cos \omega_c t \cdot \cos [(\omega_c + \Delta\omega)t + \phi] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} f(t) \{ \cos[(\Delta\omega)t + \phi] + \cos[(2\omega_c + \Delta\omega)t + \phi] \} \end{aligned} \quad \text{.....(iii)}$$

When this signal is passed through a low pass filter with a cut off frequency ω_m , the terms centered around $(\pm 2\omega_c)$ are filtered out and the filter output is given by

$$e_o(t) = \frac{1}{2} f(t) \cos [(\Delta\omega)t + \phi] \quad \text{.....(iv)}$$

the baseband signal $f(t)$ is multiplied by a slow time varying function $\cos [(\Delta\omega)t + \phi]$ that distorts the message signal $f(t)$. let us consider the following special cases,

- (i) When the frequency error $\Delta\omega$ and phase error ϕ are both zero
 $\Delta\omega = 0, \quad \phi = 0$

Equation (iv) yields,

$$e_o(t) = \frac{1}{2} f(t)$$

i.e. there is no distortion in the detected output

- (ii) When there is only the phase error ϕ ,
 $\Delta\omega = 0, \quad \phi \neq 0$
 i.e. then equation (iv) becomes

$$e_o(t) = \frac{1}{2} f(t) \cos \phi$$

which shows that output is multiplied of $\cos \phi$. when ϕ is time independent, there is no distortion, rather there is only attenuation. the output is maximum when $\phi = 0$, and minimum when $\phi = 90^\circ$.

Quadrature Null Effect:-

The detected output is zero when $\phi = 90^\circ$. this is called a quadrature null effect, because the signal is zero when the local carrier is in phase quadrature with the transmitted carrier.

- (iii) When there is only the Frequency error $\Delta\omega$,
 $\Delta\omega \neq 0, \quad \phi = 0$
 i.e. then equation (iv) becomes

$$e_o(t) = \frac{1}{2} f(t) \cos(\Delta\omega)t$$

Here the multiplying factor $\cos(\Delta\omega)t$ is time dependent and causes distortion in the

detected output. the error $\Delta\omega$ is usually small, and hence a message $f(t)$ is multiplied by a slow varying sinusoidal signal. This is a more serious distortion. Hence frequency error should be avoided.

(iv) When both errors are non-zero

$$\Delta\omega \neq 0, \quad \phi \neq 0,$$

Equation (iv) itself provides the detected output. In this case, the constant phase error provides attenuation and the frequency error causes distortion in the detected output. thus we get an attenuated and distorted output in the receiver.

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|---|-----------------------|---------|
| Q.1 | Explain the synchronous detection method of DSB-SC signals. Explain the effect of phase and frequency errors in synchronous detection. | JUNE 2013 DEC 2011 | 7 10 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-08

ANGLE MODULATION

Angle modulation:-**(JUNE 2013)(7)**

Angle modulation is a method of analog modulation in which either the phase or frequency of the carrier wave is varied according to the message signal. In this method of modulation the amplitude of the carrier wave is maintained constant.

Let us consider an unmodulated carrier wave is given by

$$\phi(t) = A \cos[\omega_c t + \theta_0]$$

$$\phi(t) = A \cos \Psi$$

Where A is the amplitude of the carrier wave and $\Psi = \omega_c t + \theta_0$ is the total phase angle of the carrier

$$\Psi = \omega_c t + \theta_0$$

By differentiating the Ψ we get, the constant angular velocity ω_c

$$\frac{d\Psi}{dt} = \omega_c$$

$\frac{d\Psi}{dt}$ is constant with time for an unmodulated carrier, but in general this derivative may not be constant with time, rather it may vary with time.

This time dependent angular velocity is called instantaneous angular velocity and denoted by ω_i

$$\frac{d\Psi}{dt} = \omega_i$$

$$\Psi = \int \omega_i dt$$

Where ω_i is time dependent

Types of Angle Modulation:-

There are two commonly used methods of angle modulation:

1. Frequency Modulation, and
2. Phase Modulation

An important feature of FM and PM is that they can provide much better protection to the message against the channel noise as compared to the linear (amplitude) modulation schemes. Also, because of their constant amplitude nature, they can withstand nonlinear distortion and amplitude fading. The price paid to achieve these benefits is the increased bandwidth requirement; that is, the transmission bandwidth of the FM or PM signal with constant amplitude and which can provide noise immunity is much larger than $2W$, where W is the highest frequency component present in the message spectrum.

Phase Modulation (PM):-

In this type of angle modulation the phase angle $\Psi(t)$ is varied linearly with a modulating signal $f(t)$ about an unmodulated carrier $\omega_c t$. the instantaneous value of phase angle Ψ_i is

equal to the phase of an unmodulated carrier $\omega_c t$ plus a time varying component proportional to $f(t)$

$$\Psi_i(t) = \omega_c t + K_p f(t)$$

Note that θ_0 is time independent and hence has been ignored

where k_p is the phase sensitivity of the modulator in radians per volt.

Thus the phase modulated signal is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_{PM} &= A \cos \Psi_i(t) \\ \Phi_{PM} &= A \cos [\omega_c t + K_p f(t)]\end{aligned}$$

Frequency Modulation (FM):-

In frequency modulation the instantaneous frequency ω_i is varied linearly with message signal, $f(t)$ as:

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + k_f f(t)$$

where k_f is the frequency sensitivity of the modulator in hertz per volt.

The total phase angle of the FM wave can be obtained by

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi_i &= \int \omega_i dt \\ \Psi_i &= \int [\omega_c + k_f f(t)] dt \\ \Psi_i &= \omega_c t + k_f \int f(t) dt\end{aligned}$$

and thus the frequency modulated signal is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_{FM} &= A \cos \Psi_i \\ \Phi_{FM} &= A \cos \left[\omega_c t + k_f \int f(t) dt \right]\end{aligned}$$

If we assume that the phase angle of the carrier at $t=0$ is zero, then the limit of integration will be 0 to t , represented by

$$\Phi_{FM} = A \cos \left[\omega_c t + k_f \int_0^t f(t) dt \right]$$

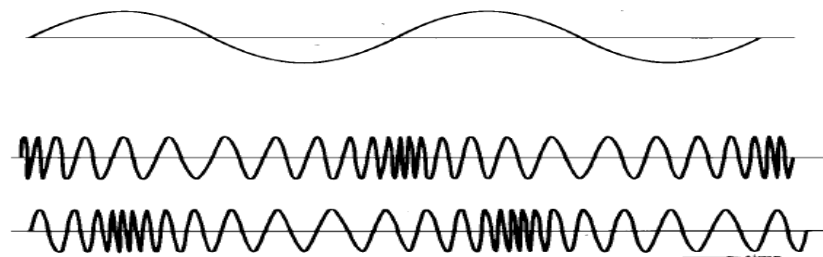


Fig (1):-PM and FM waveforms with a message signal

Relation between Frequency Modulation and Phase Modulation:-

A frequency modulated signal can be generated using a phase modulator by first integrating $m(t)$ and using it as an input to a phase modulator. This is possible by considering FM signal as phase modulated signal in which the modulating wave is integral of $m(t)$ in place of $m(t)$. This is shown in the fig-5.2(a).

Similarly, a PM signal can be generated by first differentiating $m(t)$ and then using the resultant signal as the input to a FM modulator, as shown in fig-5.2(b).

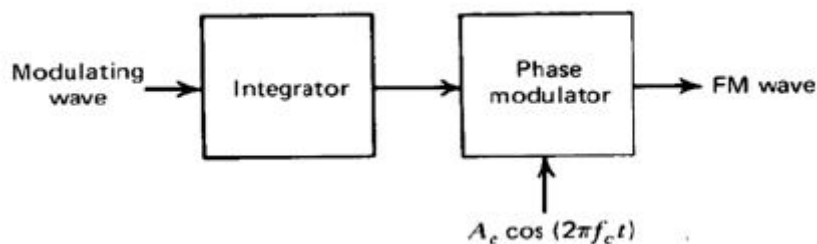


Fig: 5.2 (a)

$$\Phi_{FM} = A \cos \left[\omega_c t + k_f \int_0^t f(t) dt \right]$$

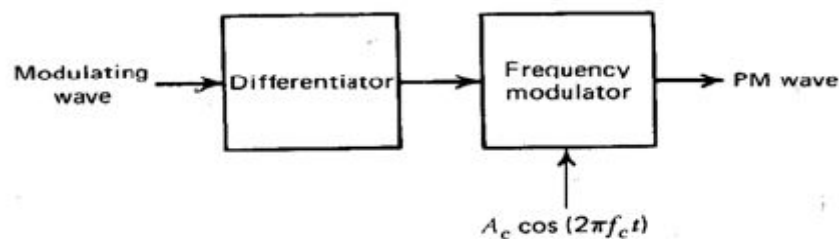


Fig: 5.2 (b)

$$\Phi_{PM} = A \cos [\omega_c t + K_p f(t)]$$

Fig: 5.2 – Scheme for generation of FM and PM Waveforms

Frequency deviation:-

The instantaneous frequency of FM signal varies with time. the maximum change in instantaneous frequency from the average i.e. ω_c is known as frequency deviation

$$\omega_i \approx \omega_c + k_f f(t)$$

The maximum change in ω_i from the average value will depend on the magnitude and sign of $k_f f(t)$.

The frequency deviation $\Delta\omega$ denoted by will be either positive or negative depending on the sign of $k_f f(t)$.

$$\Delta\omega = |k_f f(t)|_{\max}$$

Example:-

A single tone modulating signal $f(t) = E_m \cos \omega_m t$ frequency modulates a carrier $A \cos \omega_c t$, Find the frequency deviation.

Solution:-

The deviation $\Delta\omega = |k_f f(t)|_{\max}$

$$\Delta\omega = |k_f E_m \cos \omega_m t|_{\max}$$

Hence the maximum magnitude of $\cos \omega_m t = 1$, the deviation is

$$\Delta\omega = k_f E_m$$

And the frequency sensitivity is

$$k_f = \frac{\Delta\omega}{E_m} \text{ radian per volt}$$

Types of frequency modulation:-

The bandwidth of an FM signal depends on the deviation $k_f f(t)$. When the deviation is high, the bandwidth will be large, and vice versa.

Thus for a given $f(t)$, the deviation and hence bandwidth will depend on frequency sensitivity k_f .

If k_f is too small then the bandwidth will be narrow and vice versa. thus depending on the value of k_f , we can divide FM into two categories,

- (i) Narrowband FM (NBFM) :- When k_f is small the bandwidth of FM is narrow. The bandwidth of a narrow band FM is same as that of AM, which is twice the baseband.
- (ii) Wideband FM (WBFM) :- When k_f has an appreciable value, then the FM signal has a wide bandwidth. The bandwidth of a wideband FM is too large; ideally infinite

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|--|-----------|-------|
| Q.1 | What is angle modulation? How FM signal can be generated with PM signal? Discuss in detail | JUNE 2013 | 7 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-09

NARROWBAND FM AND WIDEBAND FM

NARROWBAND FM:-**(JUNE 2013)(7)**

The general expression for FM

$$\Phi_{FM} = A \cos \left[\omega_c t + k_f \int_0^t f(t) dt \right]$$

$$\int f(t) dt = g(t)$$

$$\Phi_{FM} = A \cos \left[\omega_c t + k_f g(t) \right]$$

in the phasor form (considered only real part)

$$\widetilde{\Phi_{FM}} = A e^{j[\omega_c t + k_f g(t)]}$$

$$\widetilde{\Phi_{FM}} = A \left[e^{j\omega_c t} \cdot e^{jk_f g(t)} \right]$$

$$e^{jk_f g(t)} = \cos \{k_f g(t)\} + j \sin \{k_f g(t)\}$$

For a narrowband FM,

 $k_f f(t) \ll 1$ for all values of t.

$$\cos \{k_f g(t)\} \cong 1$$

$$\sin \{k_f g(t)\} \cong k_f g(t)$$

$$e^{jk_f g(t)} \cong 1 + j k_f g(t)$$

And FM phasor expression becomes

$$\widetilde{\Phi_{FM}} = A e^{j\omega_c t} \cdot [1 + j k_f g(t)]$$

$$\widetilde{\Phi_{FM}} = A [1 + j k_f g(t)] [\cos \omega_c t + j \sin \omega_c t]$$

$$\widetilde{\Phi_{FM}} = A [\cos \omega_c t + j \sin \omega_c t + j k_f g(t) \cos \omega_c t + j^2 k_f g(t) \sin \omega_c t]$$

$$\widetilde{\Phi_{FM}} = A [\cos \omega_c t + j \sin \omega_c t + j k_f g(t) \cos \omega_c t - k_f g(t) \sin \omega_c t]$$

The FM signal is the real part of its phasor representation

$$\Phi_{FM}(t) \cong \text{Re} [\widetilde{\Phi_{FM}}(t)] = [A \cos \omega_c t - A k_f g(t) \sin \omega_c t]$$

Similarly, the narrowband PM is given by,

$$\Phi_{PM}(t) \cong [A \cos \omega_c t - A k_p f(t) \sin \omega_c t]$$

The expression for FM and PM are very much similar to the expression of the AM signal, with only a slight modification.

Hence, the bandwidth of narrowband FM is same as that of the AM. it can be seen that $g(t)$ and $f(t)$ have the same bandwidth.

Example :-

A carrier $A \cos \omega_c t$ is frequency modulated by a single tone modulating signal $f(t) = E_m \cos \omega_m t$. find

- An expression for FM wave, and
- An expression for a narrowband FM.

Solution:

- The modulating signal is given by

$$f(t) = E_m \cos \omega_m t$$

The instantaneous frequency of the resulting modulated signal can be obtained

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + k_f f(t)$$

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + k_f E_m \cos \omega_m t.$$

We find that $\Delta\omega = k_f E_m$, the frequency deviation

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + \Delta\omega \cos \omega_m t.$$

The phase angle of the modulated wave is obtained by integrating

$$\Psi_i = \int \omega_i dt$$

$$\Psi_i = \int [\omega_c + \Delta\omega \cos \omega_m t.] dt$$

$$\Psi_i = \omega_c t + \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_m} \sin \omega_m t$$

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_m} = m_f$$

$$\frac{K_f E_m}{\omega_m} = m_f$$

$$\Psi_i = \omega_c t + m_f \sin \omega_m t$$

The term m_f is known as the modulation index of the FM wave. it is defined as “the ratio of frequency deviation to the modulating frequency”

The FM signal is given by

$$\Phi_{FM} = A \cos \Psi_i$$

$$\Phi_{FM}(t) = A \cos[\omega_c t + m_f \sin \omega_m t]$$

This is the expression for a single tone Fm.

The maximum change in total phase angle from the centre phase $\omega_c t$ is known as phase deviation, in FM denoted by $\Delta\theta$.

$$\Delta\theta = m_f$$

Thus a phase deviation equal to m_f is produced in FM.

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_m} = \frac{K_f E_m}{\omega_m} = m_f$$

The modulation index m_f decides whether an FM wave is narrowband or a wideband because it is directly proportional to frequency deviation $\Delta\omega$.

$m_f = 0.5$ it is the transition point between a narrowband and wideband FM.

If $m_f < 0.5$ then FM is a narrowband, otherwise it is a wideband.

(b) The narrowband FM is defined as

$$\Phi_{FM}(t) = [A \cos wct - Ak_f g(t) \sin wct]$$

$$g(t) = \int f(t) dt$$

$$f(t) = E_m \cos w_m t$$

$$g(t) = \int E_m \cos w_m t dt$$

$$g(t) = \frac{E_m}{w_m} \sin w_m t$$

By substituting the value of $g(t)$ in the expression of FM, we get

$$\Phi_{FM}(t) = A \cos wct - Ak_f \frac{E_m}{w_m} \sin w_m t \sin wct$$

Since

$$\frac{K_f E_m}{w_m} = m_f$$

so

$$\Phi_{FM}(t) = A \cos wct - Am_f \sin w_m t \sin wct$$

This is the desired expression for a narrowband single tone FM.

WIDEBAND FM:-

(JUNE 2012)(7)

When m_f is large, the FM produces a large number of sidebands and the bandwidth of FM is quite large. such systems are called wideband FM.

Example :-

A sinusoidal wave of amplitude 10volts and frequency of 1 kHz is applied to an FM generator that has a frequency sensitivity constant of 40 Hz/volt. Determine the frequency deviation and modulating index.

Solution:

Message signal amplitude $A_m = 10$ volts

Frequency $f_m = 1000$ Hz

frequency sensitivity $k_f = 40$ Hz/volt

Frequency deviation $\Delta f = k_f A_m$

$$\Delta f = 40 \times 10$$

$$\Delta f = 400 \text{ Hz}$$

Modulation index

$$m_f = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$$

$$m_f = \frac{400}{1000}$$

$$m_f = 0.4 \quad (\text{indicates a narrow band FM})$$

Example:- A modulating signal $m(t) = 10 \cos(10000\pi t)$ modulates a carrier signal, $A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t)$. Find the frequency deviation and modulation index of the resulting FM signal. Use $k_f = 5 \text{ kHz/volt}$.

Solution:

Message signal amplitude $A_m = 10 \text{ volts}$

$$\cos(10000\pi t) = \cos(2\pi f_m t)$$

$$\cos(2 \times 5000 \pi t) = \cos(2\pi f_m t)$$

So Frequency $f_m = 5000 \text{ Hz}$

frequency sensitivity $k_f = 5 \text{ kHz/volt}$

Frequency deviation

$$\Delta f = k_f A_m$$

$$\Delta f = 5 \times 1000 \times 10$$

$$\Delta f = 50 \text{ kHz}$$

Modulation index

$$m_f = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$$

$$m_f = \frac{50 \times 1000}{5000}$$

$$m_f = 10 \quad (\text{indicates wide band FM})$$

Example:-

A single tone modulating signal $\cos 15\pi 10^3 t$ frequency modulates a carrier of 10 mHz and produces a frequency deviation of 75 kHz.

Find:

(i) The modulation index.

(ii) Phase deviation produced in the fm wave.

(iii) if another modulating signal produces a modulation index of 100 while maintaining the same deviation, find the frequency and amplitude of the modulating signal assume $k_f = 15 \text{ kHz per volt}$.

Solution:-

Given $\Delta f = 75 \text{ kHz}$

$$\cos(15\pi 10^3 t) = \cos(2\pi f_m t)$$

$$15\pi 10^3 = 2\pi f_m$$

So Frequency

$$f_m = \frac{15 \times 10^3}{2}$$

$$f_m = 7.5 \text{ kHz}$$

(i) The modulation index.

$$\beta = mf = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$$

$$mf = \frac{75 \times 10^3}{7.5 \times 10^3}$$

$$mf = 10$$

(ii) Phase deviation produced in the fm wave.

The phase deviation in FM is equal to the modulation index

$$\Delta\theta = mf = 10 \text{ rad}$$

(iii) $\Delta\theta = mf = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$

If $mf = 100$ and $\Delta f = 75 \text{ kHz}$

Now

$$100 = \frac{75 \times 10^3}{f_m}$$

$$f_m = \frac{75 \times 10^3}{100}$$

$$f_m = 750 \text{ Hz}$$

As we know

$$\Delta f = k_f A_m$$

$$A_m = \frac{\Delta f}{k_f}$$

$$A_m = \frac{75 \times 10^3}{15 \times 10^3}$$

$$A_m = 5 \text{ volt}$$

| | RGPV QUESTIONS | Year | Marks |
|-----|---|-----------------------|--------|
| Q.1 | What do you mean by FM? Derive an expression for NBFM? | JUNE 2013 DEC 2012 | 7 7 |
| Q.2 | Discuss the effect of variation in mf on the spectrum of FM | JUNE 2012 | 7 |

| | | | |
|-----|--|----------|----|
| | wave. Also explain NBFM and WBFM. | | |
| Q.3 | Derive the expression of wide band FM (WBFM). | DEC 2011 | 10 |
| Q.4 | Derive the expression for FM & NBFM along with phasor diagram. | DEC 2010 | 10 |

UNIT-02/LECTURE-10

Transmission Bandwidth of FM waves:-

An FM wave consists of infinite number of side bands so that the bandwidth is theoretically infinite. But, in practice, the FM wave is effectively limited to a finite number of side band frequencies compatible with a small amount of distortion.

Carson's Rule:-

An empirical formula for the bandwidth of a single tone wideband FM is given by carson's rule. According to this rule, the Fm bandwidth is given by

$$BW = 2(\Delta\omega + w_m)$$

$$BW = 2 \Delta\omega \left(1 + \frac{w_m}{\Delta\omega}\right)$$

Since $\frac{\Delta\omega}{w_m} = m_f$

So $\frac{w_m}{\Delta\omega} = \frac{1}{m_f}$

$$BW = 2 \Delta\omega \left(1 + \frac{1}{m_f}\right) \text{ radians}$$

Or

$$BW = 2 \Delta f \left(1 + \frac{1}{m_f}\right) \text{ Hz}$$

(i) When

$$\Delta\omega \ll w_m \text{ (narrowband FM) i.e. } m_f \ll 1$$

Then

$$BW = 2 w_m$$

Which is equivalent to AM

(ii) When

$$\Delta\omega \gg w_m \text{ (wideband FM) i.e. } m_f \gg 1$$

Then

$$BW = 2 \Delta\omega$$

DEVIATION RATIO:-

$$D = \frac{\text{Peak frequency deviation corresponding to the maximum possible amplitude of } f(t)}{\text{the maximum frequency component present in the modulating signal } f(t)}$$

$$D = \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_m}$$

Example:-

A carrier $A \cos \omega_c t$ is modulated by a signal $f(t) = 2 \cos 10^4 2\pi t + 5 \cos 10^3 2\pi t + 3 \cos 10^4 4\pi t$. Find the bandwidth of the FM signal by using Carson's rule. Assume $K_f = 15 \times 10^3$ Hz per volt. Also find modulation index m_f .

Solution:-

The maximum frequency component in $f(t)$ is 20 kHz.

The second term in $f(t)$ has the maximum amplitude i.e. $E_m = 5$ volts

Therefore the frequency deviation Δf is given by,

And deviation ratio is given by

$$m_f = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$$

$$m_f = \frac{75 \times 10^3}{20 \times 10^3}$$

$$m_f = \frac{7.5}{2}$$

And the bandwidth is given as

$$BW = 2 \Delta f \left(1 + \frac{1}{m_f} \right)$$

$$B = 2 \left(\frac{2}{7.5} + 1 \right) 75$$

$$B = 190 \text{ kHz}$$

SOME REMARKS ABOUT PHASE MODULATION:-

The total phase angle of the PM signal is given by

$$\Psi_i(t) = \omega_c t + K_p f(t)$$

For a single tone modulating signal

$$f(t) = E_m \cos \omega_m t$$

Hence

$$\Psi_i(t) = \omega_c t + K_p E_m \cos \omega_m t$$

the maximum departure in the phase is $K_p E_m$. This is known as phase deviation denoted by θ_d . thus $\theta_d = K_p E_m$ and the expression for the PM wave is

$$\Phi_{PM} = A \cos \Psi_i(t) = A \cos[\omega_c t + \theta_d \cos \omega_m t]$$

The instantaneous frequency corresponding to Ψ_i is given by

$$\omega_i = \frac{d\Psi}{dt} = \omega_c - K_p E_m \omega_m \sin \omega_m t$$

The maximum departure in the frequency from ω_c is $K_p E_m \omega_m$. Therefore, a frequency deviation produced in PM is given as

$$(\Delta\omega)_{PM} = K_p E_m \omega_m$$

Which is independent on the modulating frequency ω_m .

The frequency deviation in FM is,

$$(\Delta\omega)_{FM} = K_f E_m$$

Therefore, for an equivalent bandwidth in PM and FM

$$K_f E_m = K_p E_m \omega_m$$

$$K_f = K_p \omega_m$$

BANDWIDTH OF PM:-

The PM bandwidth is given by carson's rule

$$(BW)_{PM} \cong 2(\Delta\omega) = 2K_p E_m \omega_m$$

The phase modulation index m_p is the same as the deviation θ_d and is given by

$$m_p = K_p E_m = \theta_d$$

Example:-

A modulating signal $5\cos 2\pi 15 \times 10^3 t$, angle modulates carrier $A \cos \omega_c t$:

(i) Find the modulation index and the bandwidth for fm and pm system.

(ii) Determine the change in the bandwidth and the modulation index for both fm and pm, if fm is reduced to 5 kHz.

Solution:-

Given $A_m = 5$, $f_m = 15$ kHz

1)

FM system

Frequency deviation

$$\Delta f = k_f A_m$$

Assume $k_f = k_p = 15$ kHz/volt

So

$$\Delta f = 15 \times 10^3 \times 5$$

$$\Delta f = 75 \text{ kHz}$$

Therefore, modulation index

$$m_f = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$$

$$m_f = \frac{75}{15}$$

$$m_f = 5$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2(mf + 1)f_m$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2(5 + 1)15$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2 \times 6 \times 15$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 180 \text{ kHz}$$

PM system

Frequency deviation

$$\Delta f = k_p A_m f_m$$

$$\Delta f = 15 \times 10^3 \times 5 \times 15 \times 10^3$$

$$\Delta f = 1125 \text{ MHz}$$

modulation index

$$m_p = k_p A_m$$

$$m_p = 15 \times 10^3 \times 5$$

$$m_p = 75000$$

Corresponding band width

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2 \Delta f \text{ since } \Delta f \text{ is so much greater than } f_m$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2 \times 1125 \text{ MHz}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2250 \text{ MHz}$$

The band width is quite large as compared to FM. This is because the Modulation index in PM is quite large

(i) Now, if $f_m = 5 \text{ kHz}$

For FM: The deviation Δf is independent of f_m , and remains 75 KHz.

$$m_f = \frac{75}{5}$$

$$m_f = 15$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2(mf + 1)f_m$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2(15 + 1)5$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2 \times 16 \times 5$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 160 \text{ kHz}$$

Thus in FM the modulation index changes considerably with a change in the modulating frequency, but the bandwidth changes only slightly.

For PM:

Deviation Δf is dependent on f_m and is given by

$$\Delta f = k_p A_m f_m$$

$$\Delta f = 15 \times 10^3 \times 5 \times 5 \times 10^3$$

$$\Delta f = 375 \text{ MHz}$$

Hence

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2 \Delta f \text{ since } \Delta f \text{ is so much greater than } f_m \text{ Bandwidth} = 2 \times 375 \text{ MHz}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 750 \text{ MHz}$$

The modulation index is independent of f_m , so

$$m_p = k_p A_m$$

$$m_p = 15 \times 10^3 \times 5$$

$$m_p = 75000$$

$$m_p = 75 \text{ kHz}$$
