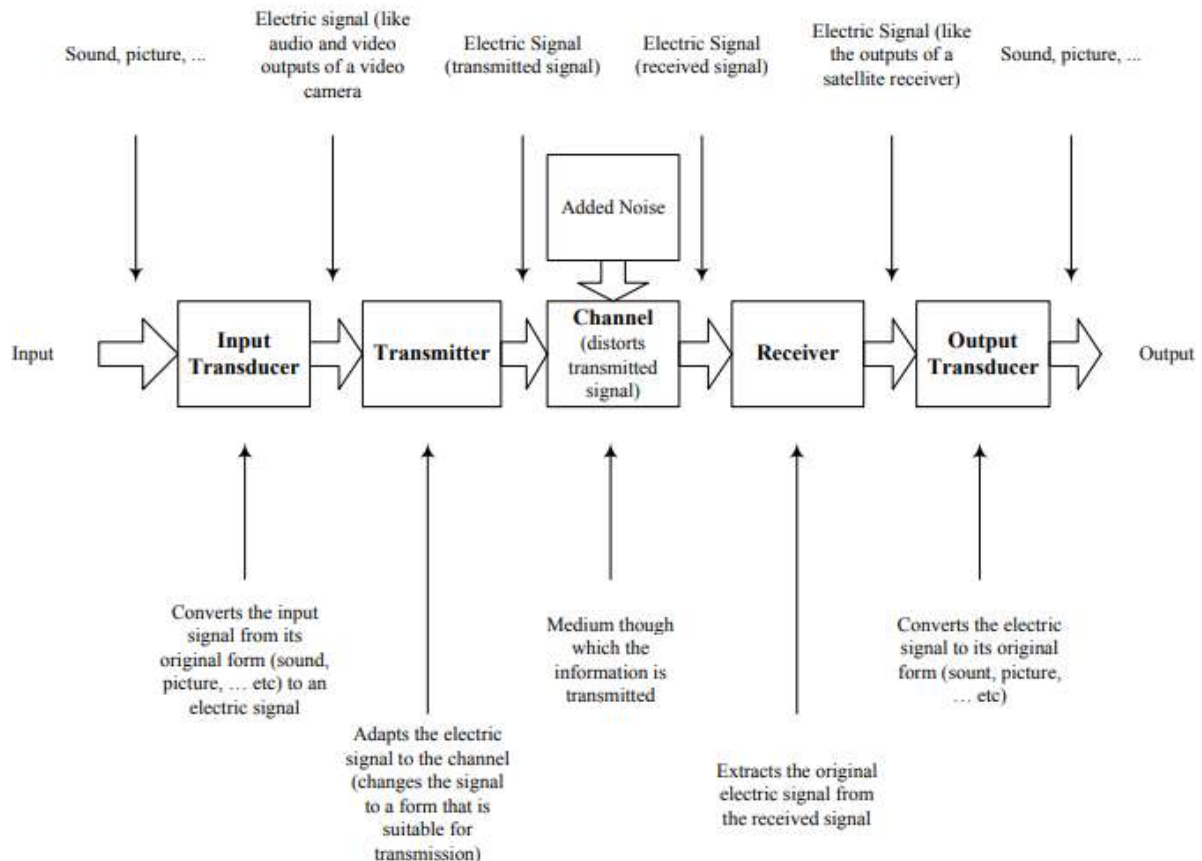


## UNIT I : AMPLITUDE MODULATION

Communication is the transfer of information from one place (known as the source of information) to another place (known as the destination of information). It is used in Teleconferencing, teleshopping, telebanking, internet, computer networks and mobile etc.

### Basic Communication System:

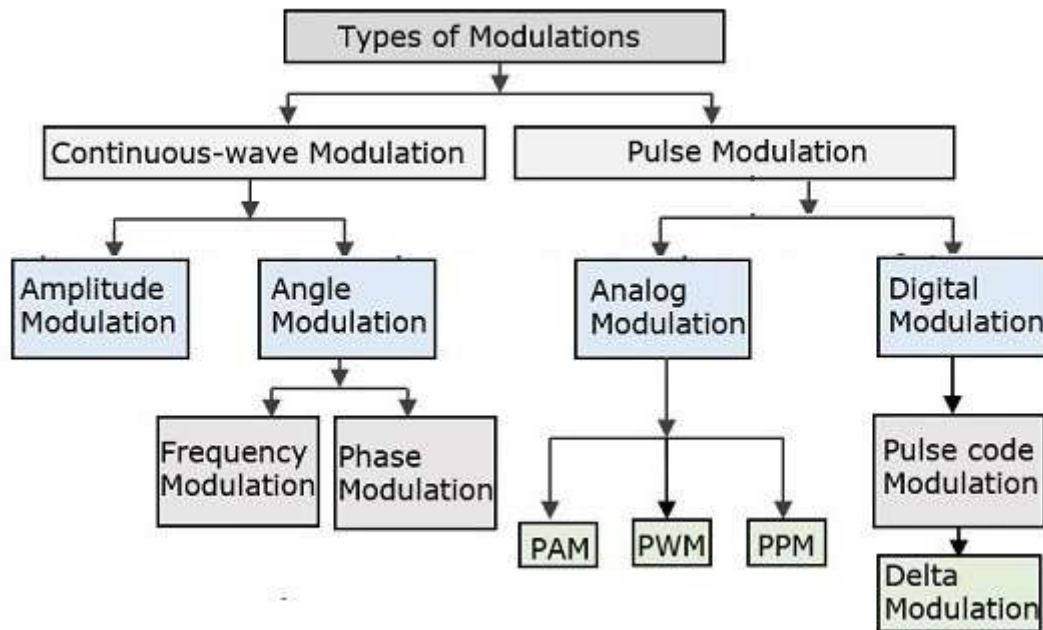


**Fig.1 Communication system**

### Advantages of Digital Communication over Analog Communication:

1. Immunity to Noise
2. Efficient use of communication bandwidth Digital communication provides higher security
3. The ability to detect errors and correct them if necessary.
4. Design and manufacturing of electronics for digital communication systems is much easier and much cheaper than the design and manufacturing of electronics for analog communication systems.

**Modulation:** Modulation is changing one or more of the characteristics of a carrier signal in accordance with the modulating signal to produce a modulated signal.



**Fig.2 Types of Modulations**

### Continuous Wave modulation Types:

1. **Amplitude Modulation (AM):** Process of changing the amplitude of the carrier signal in accordance with instantaneous amplitude of the modulating signal.
2. **Frequency Modulation (FM):** Process of changing the frequency of the carrier signal in accordance with instantaneous amplitude of the modulating signal.
3. **Phase Modulation (PM):** Process of changing the phase of the carrier signal in accordance with instantaneous amplitude of the modulating signal.

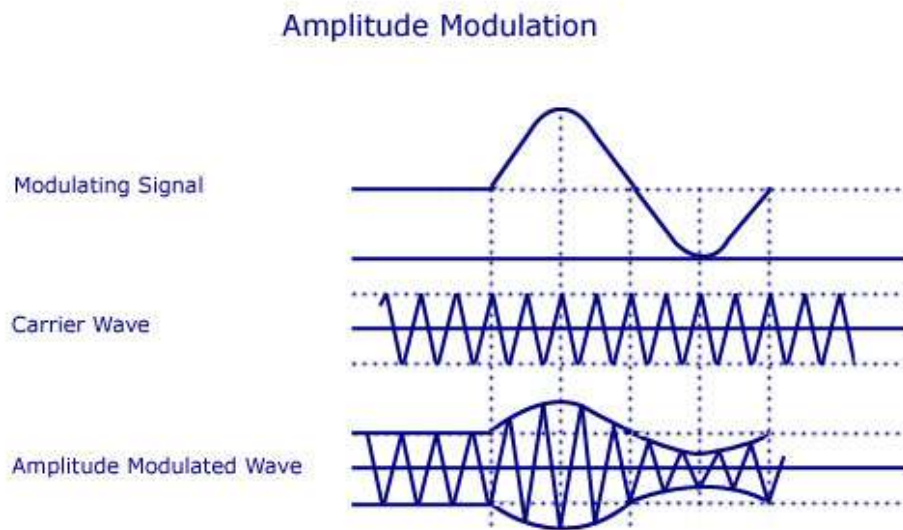
### Need for Modulation:

1. Reduction in the height of antenna
2. Avoids mixing of signals
3. Increases the range of communication
4. Multiplexing is possible
5. Improves quality of reception

### MATHEMATICAL REPRESENTATION OF AM:

The method of varying amplitude of a high frequency carrier wave in accordance with the information to be transmitted, keeping the frequency and phase of the carrier wave unchanged is called Amplitude Modulation. The information is considered as the modulating

signal and it is superimposed on the carrier wave by applying both of them to the modulator. The detailed diagram showing the amplitude modulation process is given.



**Fig 3. AM modulated wave**

From the figure, the amplitude variation of the high frequency carrier is at the signal frequency and the frequency of the carrier wave is the same as the frequency of the resulting wave.

**MATHEMATICAL REPRESENTATION OF AM WAVE: TWO TITLES**

**Analysis of Amplitude Modulation Carrier Wave:**

Let carrier signal be represented as  $v_c(t) = V_c \sin w_c t$  ----- (1)

Let the message signal be represented as  $v_m(t) = V_m \sin w_m t$  -----(2)

$v_c$  – Instantaneous value of the carrier  $V_c$  – Peak value of the carrier

$w_c$  – Angular velocity of the carrier

$v_m$  – Instantaneous value of the modulating signal

$V_m$  – Maximum value of the modulating signal

$w_m$  – Angular velocity of the modulating signal

$f_m$  – Modulating signal frequency

The amplitude of modulated carrier wave is given by the equation

$$A = V_c + v_m = V_c + V_m \sin w_m t = V_c \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{V_m}{V_c} \sin w_m t \right) \right] = V_c (1 + m \sin w_m t)$$

$m$  – Modulation Index. The ratio of  $\frac{V_m}{V_c}$ .

Instantaneous value of amplitude modulated carrier wave is given by the equation

$$C_m(t) = A \sin \omega_c t = V_c (1 + m \sin \omega_m t) \sin \omega_c t$$

$$= V_c \sin \omega_c t + m V_c (\sin \omega_m t \sin \omega_c t)$$

$$C_m(t) = V_c \sin \omega_c t + \left[ \frac{m V_c}{2 \cos} (\omega_c - \omega_m) t - m V_c / 2 \cos (\omega_c + \omega_m) t \right]$$

The above equation represents the sum of three sine waves. One with amplitude of  $V_c$  and a frequency of  $\omega_c/2$ , the second one with an amplitude of  $mV_c/2$  and frequency of  $(\omega_c - \omega_m)/2$  and the third one with an amplitude of  $mV_c/2$  and a frequency of  $(\omega_c + \omega_m)/2$ .

In practice the angular velocity of the carrier is known to be greater than the angular velocity of the modulating signal ( $\omega_c \gg \omega_m$ ). Thus, the second and third cosine equations are more close to the carrier frequency. The equation is represented graphically as shown below.

### Frequency Spectrum of AM Wave:

$$\text{Lower side frequency} = \frac{(\omega_c - \omega_m)}{2}$$

$$\text{Upper side frequency} = \frac{(\omega_c + \omega_m)}{2}$$

The frequency components present in the AM wave are represented by vertical lines. Thus there will not be any change in the original frequency, but the side band frequencies  $(\omega_c - \omega_m)/2$  and  $(\omega_c + \omega_m)/2$  will be changed. The former is called the upper side band (USB) frequency and the latter is known as lower side band (LSB) frequency. Since the signal frequency  $\omega_m/2$  is present in the side bands, it is clear that the carrier voltage component does not transmit any information. Two side banded frequencies will be produced when a carrier is amplitude modulated by a single frequency. That is, an AM wave has a band width from  $(\omega_c - \omega_m)/2$  to  $(\omega_c + \omega_m)/2$ , that is,  $2\omega_m/2$  or twice the signal frequency is produced. When a modulating signal has more than one frequency, two side band frequencies are produced by every frequency. Similarly for two frequencies of the modulating signal 2 LSB's and 2 USB's frequencies will be produced.

The side band frequencies present above the carrier frequency is known to be the upper side band and all those below the carrier frequency belong to the lower side band. The USB frequencies represent the some of the individual modulating frequencies and the LSB frequencies represent the difference between the modulating frequency and the carrier frequency. The total bandwidth is represented in terms of the higher modulating frequency and is equal to twice this frequency.

### Modulation Index (m):

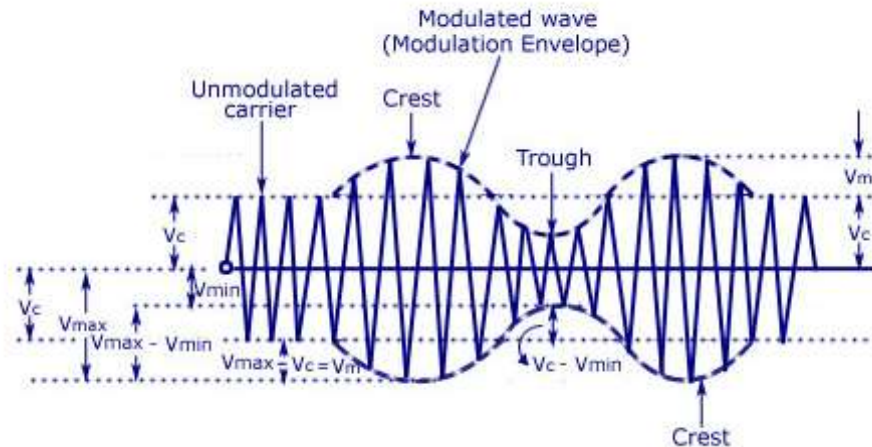
The ratio between the amplitude change of carrier wave to the amplitude of the normal carrier wave is called modulation index. It is represented by the letter 'm'.

It can also be defined as the range in which the amplitude of the carrier wave is varied

by the modulating signal.  $m = \frac{V_m}{V_c}$ .

Percentage modulation,  $\%m = m * 100 = \frac{V_m}{V_c} * 100$

**Amplitude Modulated Carrier Wave:**



**Fig.4 AM modulated wave**

$$2 V_{in} = V_{max} - V_{min}$$

$$V_{in} = \frac{(V_{max} - V_{min})}{2}$$

$$V_c = V_{max} - V_{in}$$

$$= V_{max} - \frac{(V_{max} - V_{min})}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(V_{max} + V_{min})}{2}$$

Substituting the values of  $V_m$  and  $V_c$  in the equation  $m = V_m/V_c$ , we get

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

As told earlier, the value of  $m$  lies between 0 and 0.8. The value of  $m$  determines the strength and the quality of the transmitted signal. In an AM wave, the signal is contained in the variations of the carrier amplitude. The audio signal transmitted will be weak if the carrier wave is only modulated to a very small degree. But if the value of  $m$  exceeds unity, the transmitter output produces erroneous distortion.

**Power Relations in an AM wave:**

A modulated wave has more power than had by the carrier wave before modulating. The total power components in amplitude modulation can be written as:

$$P_{total} = P_{carrier} + P_{LSB} + P_{USB}$$

Considering additional resistance like antenna resistance  $R$ .

$$P_{carrier} = \left[ \frac{(V_c/\sqrt{2})}{R} \right]^2 = \frac{V_c^2}{2R}$$

Each side band has a value of  $m/2 V_c$  and r.m.s value of  $mV_c/2\sqrt{2}$ . Hence power in LSB and USB can be written as

$$P_{LSB} = P_{USB} = (mV_c/2\sqrt{2})^2/R = m^2/4 * V^2C/2R = m^2/4 P_{carrier}$$

$$P_{total} = V^2C/2R + [m^2/4 * V^2C/2R] + [m^2/4 * V^2C/2R] = V^2C/2R (1 + m^2/2) = P_{carrier} (1 + m^2/2)$$

In some applications, the carrier is simultaneously modulated by several sinusoidal modulating signals. In such a case, the total modulation index is given as

$$M_t = \sqrt{(m_1^2 + m_2^2 + m_3^2 + m_4^2 + \dots)}$$

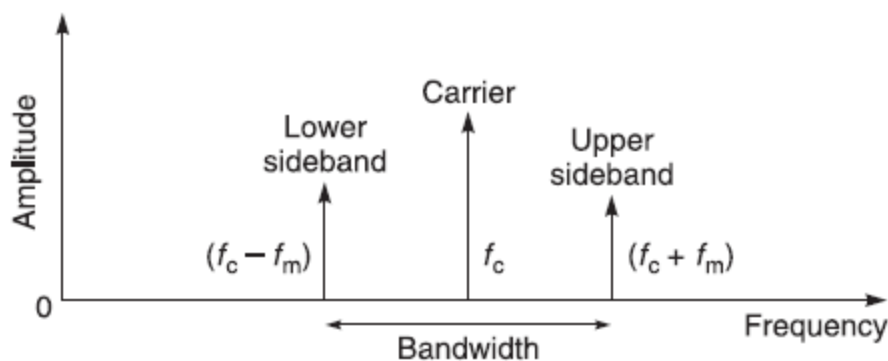
If  $I_c$  and  $I_t$  are the r.m.s values of unmodulated current and total modulated current and  $R$  is the resistance through which these current flow, then

$$\frac{P_{total}}{P_{carrier}} = \left(\frac{I_t R}{I_c R}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{I_t}{I_c}\right)^2$$

$$\frac{P_{total}}{P_{carrier}} = \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$$

$$\frac{I_t}{I_c} = 1 + \frac{m^2}{2}$$

### Frequency spectrum of AM:



$$B.W = 2f_m$$

**Fig.5 Frequency Spectrum of AM**

### Limitations of Amplitude Modulation:

- 2 Low Efficiency- Since the useful power that lies in the small bands is quite small, so the efficiency of AM system is low.
- 3 Limited Operating Range – The range of operation is small due to low efficiency. Thus, transmission of signals is difficult.
- 4 Noise in Reception – As the radio receiver finds it difficult to distinguish between the amplitude variations that represent noise and those with the signals, heavy noise is prone to occur in its reception.
4. Poor Audio Quality – To obtain high fidelity reception, all audio frequencies till 15 KiloHertz must be reproduced and this necessitates the bandwidth of 10 KiloHertz to minimise the interference from the adjacent broadcasting stations. Therefore in AM broadcasting stations audio quality is known to be poor.

### AM TRANSMITTERS:

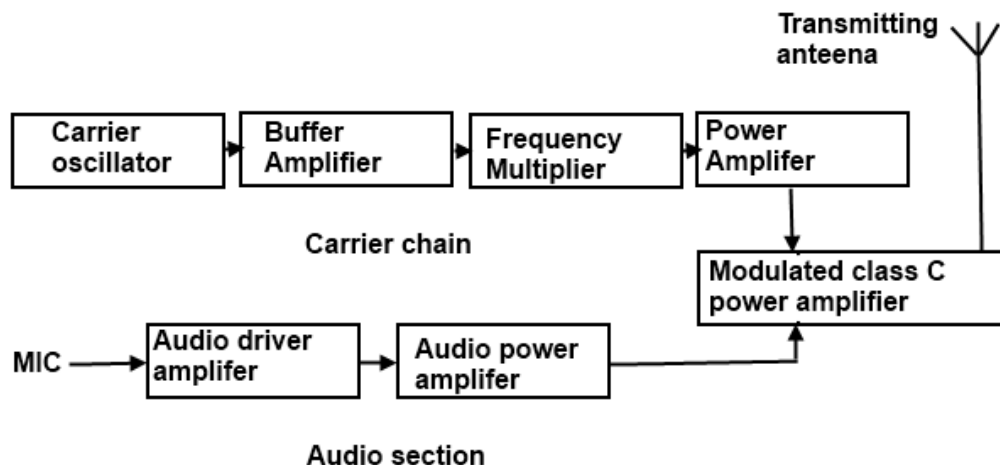
Transmitters that transmit AM signals are known as AM transmitters. These transmitters are used in medium wave (MW) and short wave (SW) frequency bands for AM broadcast. The MW band has frequencies between 550 KHz and 1650 KHz, and the SW band has frequencies ranging from 3 MHz to 30 MHz. The two types of AM transmitters that are used based on their transmitting powers are:

1. High Level

## 2. Low Level

High level transmitters use high level modulation, and low level transmitters use low level modulation. The choice between the two modulation schemes depends on the transmitting power of the AM transmitter. In broadcast transmitters, where the transmitting power may be of the order of kilowatts, high level modulation is employed. In low power transmitters, where only a few watts of transmitting power are required, low level modulation is used.

High-Level and Low-Level Transmitters Below figure's show the block diagram of high-level and low-level transmitters. The basic difference between the two transmitters is the power amplification of the carrier and modulating signals



**Fig.6 Block diagram of High level AM transmitter**

In high-level transmission, the powers of the carrier and modulating signals are amplified before applying them to the modulator stage, as shown in figure (a). In low-level modulation, the powers of the two input signals of the modulator stage are not amplified. The required transmitting power is obtained from the last stage of the transmitter, the class C power amplifier.

The various sections of the figure (a) are:

- Carrier oscillator
- Buffer amplifier
- Frequency multiplier
- Power amplifier
- Audio chain
- Modulated class C power amplifier

### 1. Carrier oscillator

The carrier oscillator generates the carrier signal, which lies in the RF range. The frequency of the carrier is always very high. Because it is very difficult to generate high frequencies with good frequency stability, the carrier oscillator generates a sub multiple with the required carrier frequency. This sub multiple frequency is multiplied by the frequency multiplier stage to get the required carrier frequency. Further, a crystal oscillator can be used in this stage to generate a low frequency carrier with the best frequency stability. The frequency multiplier stage then increases the frequency of the carrier to its requirements.

## 2. Buffer Amplifier

The purpose of the buffer amplifier is twofold. It first matches the output impedance of the carrier oscillator with the input impedance of the frequency multiplier, the next stage of the carrier oscillator. It then isolates the carrier oscillator and frequency multiplier. This is required so that the multiplier does not draw a large current from the carrier oscillator. If this occurs, the frequency of the carrier oscillator will not remain stable.

## 3. Frequency Multiplier

The sub-multiple frequency of the carrier signal, generated by the carrier oscillator, is now applied to the frequency multiplier through the buffer amplifier. This stage is also known as harmonic generator. The frequency multiplier generates higher harmonics of carrier oscillator frequency. The frequency multiplier is a tuned circuit that can be tuned to the requisite carrier frequency that is to be transmitted.

## 4. Power Amplifier

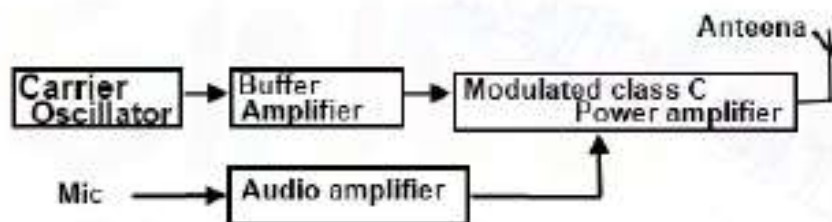
The power of the carrier signal is then amplified in the power amplifier stage. This is the basic requirement of a high-level transmitter. A class C power amplifier gives high power current pulses of the carrier signal at its output.

## 5. Audio Chain

The audio signal to be transmitted is obtained from the microphone, as shown in figure (a). The audio driver amplifier amplifies the voltage of this signal. This amplification is necessary to drive the audio power amplifier. Next, a class A or a class B power amplifier amplifies the power of the audio signal.

## 6. Modulated Class C Amplifier

This is the output stage of the transmitter. The modulating audio signal and the carrier signal, after power amplification, are applied to this modulating stage. The modulation takes place at this stage. The class C amplifier also amplifies the power of the AM signal to the required transmitting power. This signal is finally passed to the antenna, which radiates the signal into space of transmission.



**Fig.7 Low level AM transmitter**

The low-level AM transmitter shown in above figure is similar to a high-level transmitter, except that the powers of the carrier and audio signals are not amplified. These two signals are directly applied to the modulated class C power amplifier.

Modulation takes place at the stage, and the power of the modulated signal is amplified to the required transmitting power level. The transmitting antenna then transmits the signal.

## 7. Coupling of Output Stage and Antenna



The output stage of the modulated class C power amplifier feeds the signal to the transmitting antenna. To transfer maximum power from the output stage to the antenna it is necessary that the impedance of the two sections match. For this, a matching network is required. The matching between the two should be perfect at all transmitting frequencies. As the matching is required at different frequencies, inductors and capacitors offering different impedance at different frequencies are used in the matching networks.

### 1. DSBSC MODULATION:

Double-sideband suppressed-carrier transmission (DSB-SC) is transmission in which frequencies produced by amplitude modulation (AM) are symmetrically spaced above and below the carrier frequency and the carrier level is reduced to the lowest practical level, ideally being completely suppressed.

DSB-SC is basically an amplitude modulation wave without the carrier, therefore reducing power waste, giving it a 50% efficiency. This is an increase compared to normal AM transmission (DSB), which has a maximum efficiency of 33.333%, since 2/3 of the power is in the carrier.

#### Generation of DSB – SC – AM

In DSB – SC, the transmitted wave consists of only upper and lower sidebands. Transmitted power is saved here through the suppression of the carrier wave because it does not contain any useful information, but the channel bandwidth required is the same as before.

#### Expression for DSB –SC:

Let the modulating signal,

$$V_m(t) = V_m \sin \omega_m t$$

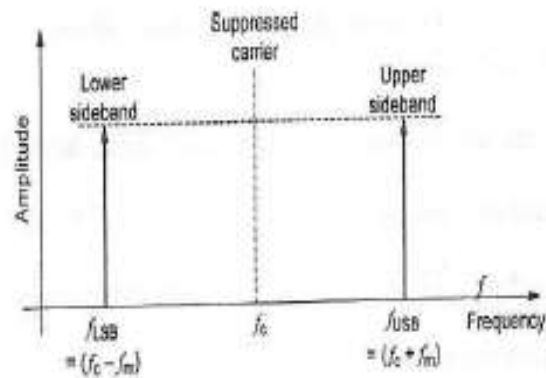
The carrier signal be,

$$V_c(t) = V_c \sin \omega_c t$$

$$V_m(t)_{DSC-SC} = V_m(t) V_c(t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_m(t)_{DSC-SC} &= V_m \sin \omega_m t \cdot V_c \sin \omega_c t \\ &= V_m V_c \sin \omega_m t \sin \omega_c t \end{aligned}$$

$$V_m(t)_{DSC-SC} = \frac{V_m V_c}{2} [\cos(\omega_c - \omega_m)t - \cos(\omega_c + \omega_m)t]$$



**Fig 8. Frequency spectrum of DSBSC**

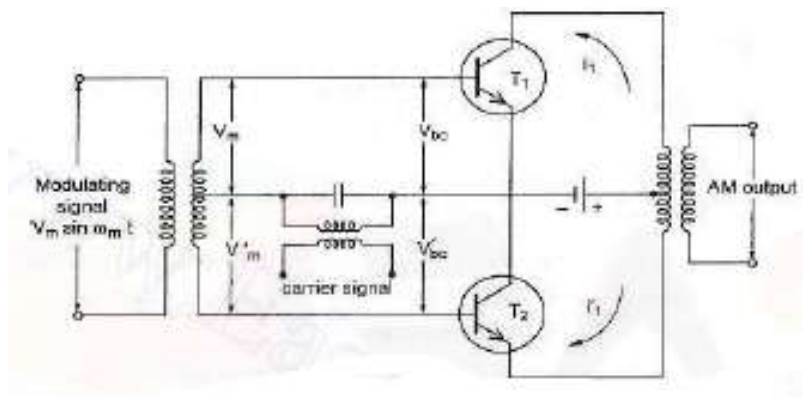
There are two ways of generating **DSB–SC–AM** such as ,

- i) Balanced modulator,
- ii) Ring modulator.

**Balanced Modulator**

This is the circuit that is very commonly used for **DSB–SC generation**. In balanced modulator, two non-linear devices are connected in the balanced mode, so as to suppress the carrier wave. It is assumed that the two transistors are identical and the circuit is symmetrical. Since the operation is confined in non-linear region of its transfer characteristics.

Modulating voltage across the two windings of a centre-tap transformer is equal,opposite in phase,  
 i.e.,  $V_m = V'_m$

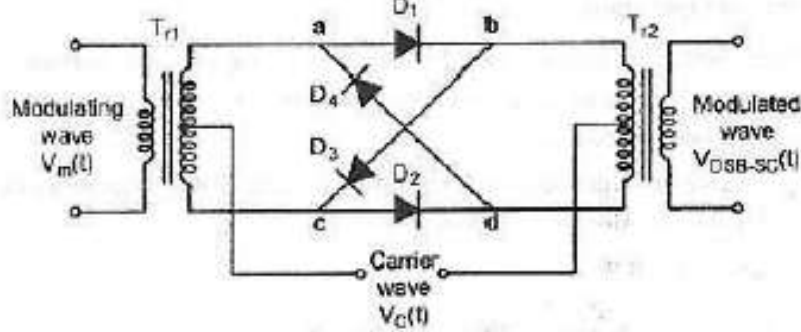


**Fig.9 Balanced Modulator**

**Ring Modulator:**

The one of the most popular method of generating a **DSB – SC** wave is ring modulator. The circuit employs diodes as non-linear devices and the carrier signal is connected between centre taps of the input and output transformers. There is no need for a band pass filter at the output. The four diodes are controlled by a

carrier  $V_c(t)$  of frequency  $f_c$ . The carrier signal acts as a switching signal to alternate the polarity of the modulating signals at the carrier frequency. For better understanding of the operation, assume that the modulating input is zero. Only carrier signal is present.



**Fig.10 Ring modulator**

### Positive Half Cycle of Carrier:

Diodes D1 and D2 are forward biased. At this time D3 and D4 are reverse biased and act like open circuits. The current divides equally in the upper and lower portions of the primary winding of Tr2.

The current in the upper part of the winding produces a magnetic field that is equal and opposite to the magnetic field produced by the current in the lower half of the secondary. Therefore, these magnetic fields cancel each other out and no output is induced in the secondary. Thus the carrier is effectively suppressed.

### Negative Half Cycle of Carrier:

When the polarity of the carrier reverses, diodes D1 and D2 are reverse biased and diodes D3 and D4 conduct. Again the current flows in the secondary winding of Tr1 and the primary winding of Tr2.

The equal and opposite magnetic fields produced in Tr2 cancel each other out and thus result in zero carrier output. The carrier is effectively balanced out.

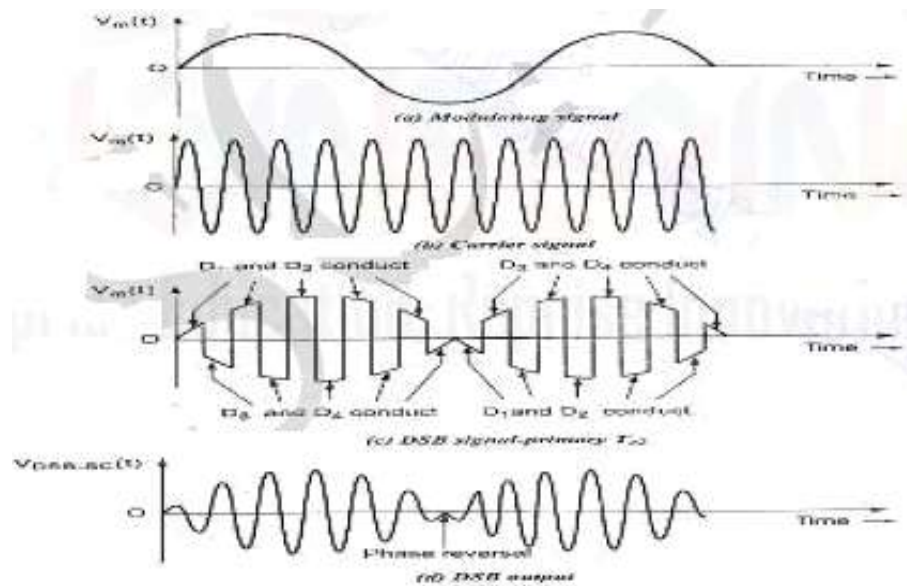
### Principle of Operation:

When both the carrier and the modulating signals are present, during positive half cycle of the carrier, diodes D1 and D2 conduct, while diodes D3 and D4 do not conduct.

During negative half cycle of the carrier voltage diodes D3 and D4 conduct and D1 and D2 do not conduct.

### Phase Reversal

When polarity of the modulating signal changes, the result is a  $180^\circ$  phase reversal.



**Fig.11 DSB output**

At the time, during the positive half cycle of the carrier, diodes D3 and D4 are in forward bias and the negative half cycle of the carrier, diodes D1 and D2 are in reverse bias.

The ring modulator circuit is also known as double balanced modulator because comparing to balanced modulator here two more diodes are used.

#### **Advantages:**

1. DSB –SC is more efficient in transmitted power as compared to DSBFC .
2. DSB –SC has better signal to noise ratio as compared to single side band (SSB)transmission.

#### **Disadvantage:**

Even though the carrier is suppressed the bandwidth of DSBSC remains same as DSBFC.

### **5.GENERATION OF AM USING A NON LINEAR MODULATOR CIRCUIT:**

#### **Non linear modulator circuits:**

A simple diode can be used as a non linear modulator by restricting its Operation to non linear operation of its characteristics.

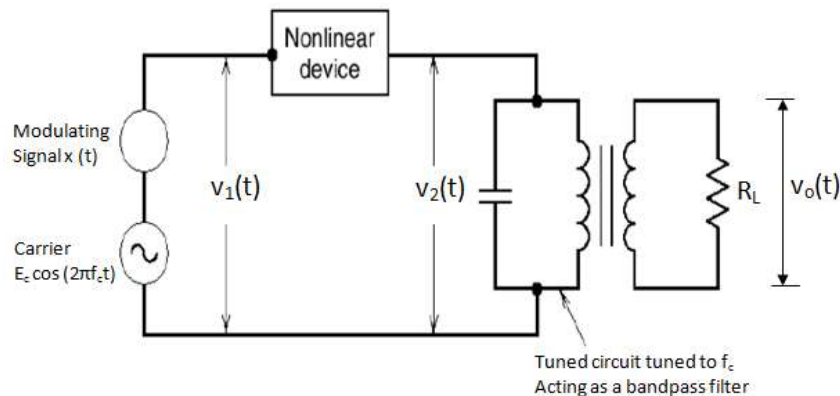
The undesired frequency terms are filtered out by a band pass filter. The methods for generation of AM waves using non linear property are broadly divided into two types

- (a) Square law modulator
- (b) Balance modulator

#### **(a)Square law modulators:**

Any device operated in non linear region of its output characteristics is capable of producing amplitude modulated waves when the carrier and modulating signals are fed at the input. Thus a transistor, a triode tube, a diode etc. may be used as the square law modulator. A square law modulator circuit consists of the following:

- i) A non linear device
- ii) A bandpass filter
- iii) A carrier source and modulating signal



**Fig12.Square law modulator.**

Consider a non linear device to which a carrier  $c(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t)$  and an information signal  $m(t)$  are fed simultaneously as shown in figure 12. The total input to the device at any instant is

$$V_{in} = c(t) + m(t)$$

$$V_{in} = A_c \cos 2\pi f_c t + m(t)$$

As the level of the input is small very small, the output can be considered up to square of the input

$$V_o = a_0 + a_1 V_{in} + a_2 V_{in}^2$$

Taking Fourier transform on both sides we get

$$\begin{aligned} V_o(f) = & \left( a_0 + \frac{a_2 A_c^2}{2} \right) \delta(f) + \frac{a_1 A_c}{2} [\delta(f - f_c) + \delta(f + f_c)] + a_1 M(f) \\ & + \frac{a_2 A_c^2}{2} [\delta(f - 2f_c) + \delta(f + 2f_c)] + a_2 M(f) \\ & + a_2 A_c [M(f - f_c) + M(f + f_c)] \end{aligned}$$

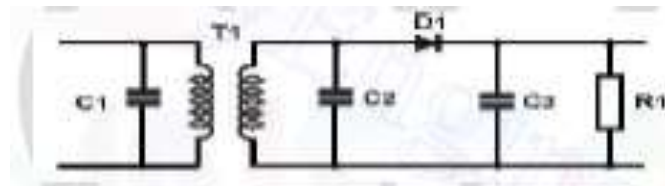
Therefore the square law device output  $V_o$  consists of the dc component at  $f=0$  The information signal ranging from 0 to  $W$  Hz and its second harmonics Signal at  $f_c$  and  $2f_c$  Frequency band centered at  $f_c$  with a deviation of  $\pm W$  Hz.

The required AM signal with a carrier frequency  $f_c$  can be separated using a bandpass filter at the output of the square law device. The filter should have a lower cutoff frequency ranging between  $2W$  and  $(f_c - W)$  and upper cut-off frequency between  $(f_c + W)$  and  $2f_c$ . The output AM signal is free from distortion and attenuation only when  $(f_c - W) > 2W$  or  $f_c > 3W$

## 6. DSBSC DEMODULATION – ENVELOPE DETECTOR

The most commonly used AM detector is simple diode detector as shown in Fig. The AM signal at fixed IF is applied to the transformer primary. The signal at secondary is

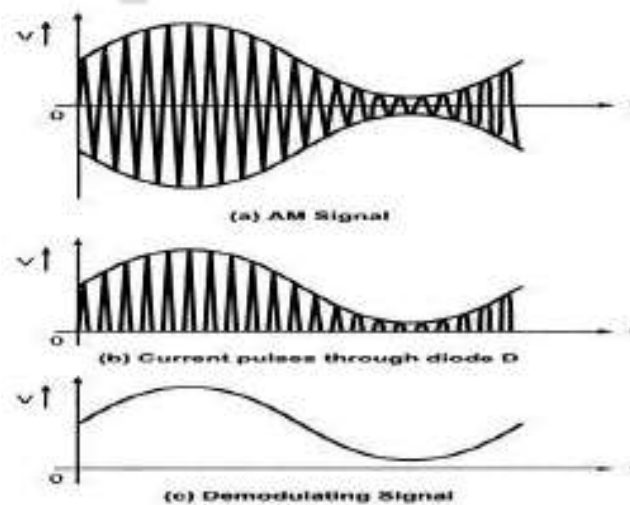
half wave rectified by diode D. This diode is the detector diode. The resistance R is load resistance to rectifier and C is the filter capacitor. In the positive half cycle of AM signal diode conducts and current flows through R, whereas in negative half cycle, the diode is reverse biased and no current flows. Therefore only positive half of the AM wave appears across resistance R as shown in figure. The capacitor across parallel R provides low impedance at the carrier frequency and much higher impedance at the modulating frequency. Therefore capacitor reconstructs the original modulating signal shown in figure and high frequency carrier is removed.



**Fig13. Envelope detector**

#### Negative peak clipping in diode detector:

This is the distortion that occurs in the output of diode detector because of unequal  $ac$  and  $dc$  load impedances of the diode. The modulation index is defined as  $E_m / E_c$ .

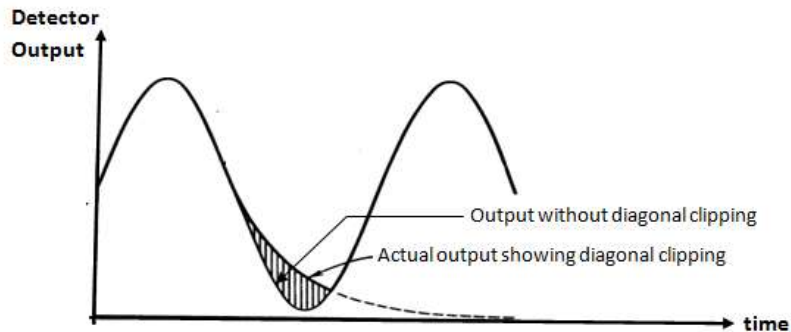


**Fig.14 Waveform of negative peak clipping**

The audio load resistance of the diode is smaller than the dc resistance. Hence the AF current  $I_m$  is larger, in proportion to dc current. This makes the modulation index in the demodulated wave relatively higher than that of modulated wave applied at the detector input. This introduces the distortion due to over modulation in the detector signal for modulation index near 100%. This is illustrated in Fig 14. In the figure observe that the negative peak of the detected signal takes place because of over modulation effect taking place in detector.

#### Diagonal Clipping in Diode Detector

As the modulating frequency is increased, the diode ac load impedance,  $Z_m$  does not remain purely resistive. It does have reactive component also. At high modulation depths, the current changes so fast that the time constant of the load does not follow the changes. Hence the current decays slowly as shown in fig. The output voltage follows the discharge law of RC circuit. This introduces distortion in the detected signal and it is called diagonal peak clipping.



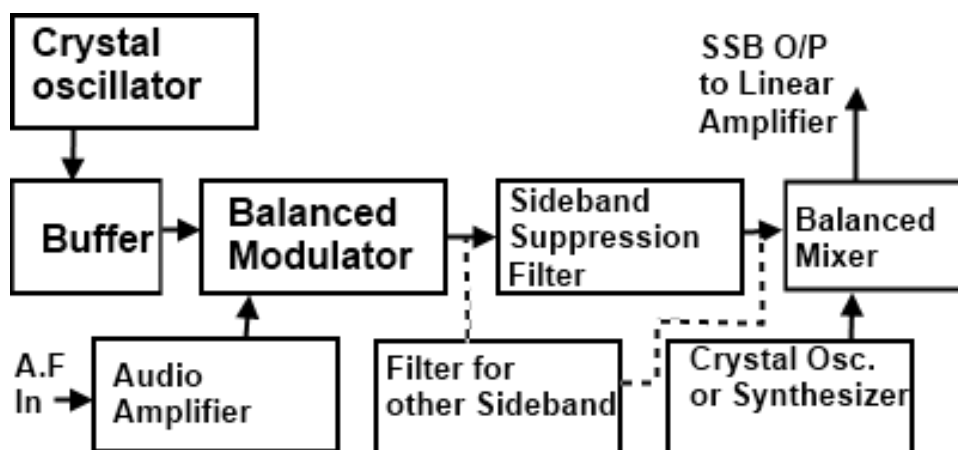
**Fig.15 Waveform of Diagonal clipping**

**7. SSB MODULATION**

SSB – SC – AM waves can be generated in three ways.

1. Frequency discrimination (or) Filter method
2. Phase discrimination method.
4. Third method or Weaver’s method

**Filter Method:**



**Fig.16 Filter method of SSB Generation**

Fig.16 shows the block diagram of filter method to suppress one sideband. As shown in the block diagram, the balanced modulator produces DSB output. This DSB signal contains both the sideband. The filter must have a flat pass band and extremely high

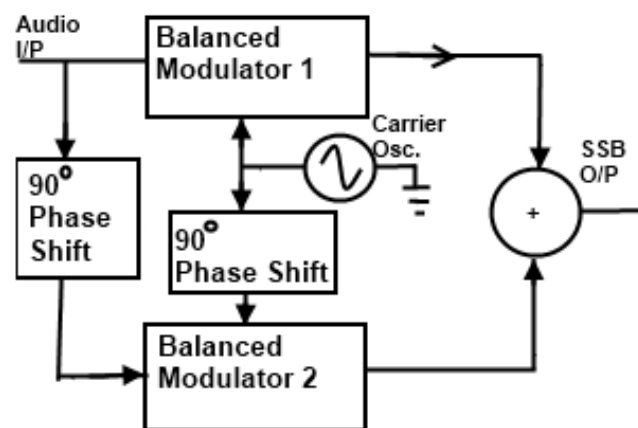
attenuation outside the pass band. In order to have this type of response the  $Q$  of the tuned circuits must be very high.

The required value of  $Q$  factor increases as the difference between modulating frequency and carrier frequency increases. Carrier frequency is usually same as the transmitter frequency increases. Carrier frequency is usually same as the transmitter frequency.

For higher transmitting frequencies required value of  $Q$  is so high that there is no practical way of achieving it. In such situation, initial modulation is carried out at a low frequency carrier say 100 kHz by the balanced modulator. Then the filter suppresses one of the sidebands. The frequency of the SSB signal generated at output of filter is very low as compared to the transmitter frequency.

The frequency is boosted up to the transmitter frequency by the balanced mixer and crystal oscillator. This process of frequency booting is also called as up conversion. The SSB signal having frequency equal to the transmitter frequency is then amplified by the linear amplifiers.

### Phase Shift Method to Generate SSB



**Fig.17 Phase Shift generator**

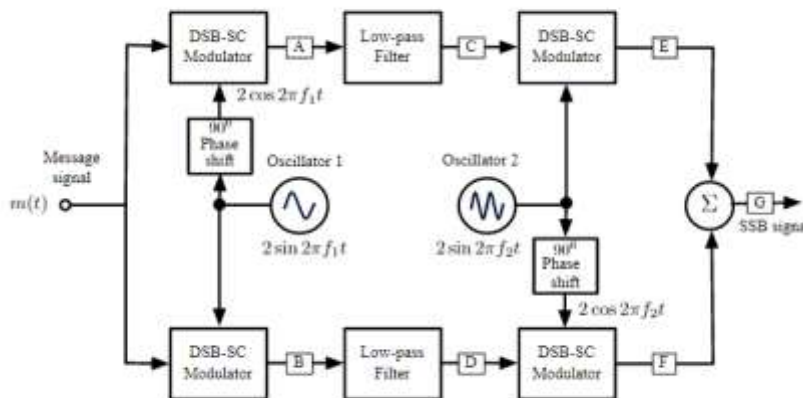
Fig 17 shows the block diagram of phase shift method to generate SSB. The carriersignal is shifted by  $90^\circ$  and applied to the balanced modulator M1. The modulating signal is also directly applied to the balanced modulator M2. The modulating signal is phase shifted by  $90^\circ$  and applied to balanced modulator M2.

Both the modulators produce an output consisting of only sidebands. The upper balanced modulator (M1) generates upper sideband and lower sideband, but upper sideband is shifted by  $+90^\circ$  whereas lower sideband is shifted by  $-90^\circ$ . The output of balanced modulators are added by the summing amplifier. Since upper sidebands of both the modulators are phase shifted by  $+90^\circ$ , they are in phase and add to produce double amplitude signal. But lower sideband of the balanced modulator are  $(+90^\circ, -90^\circ)$   $180^\circ$  out of phase and hence cancel each



other. Thus the output of summing amplifier contains only upper sideband SSB signal. The carrier is already suppressed by balanced modulators.

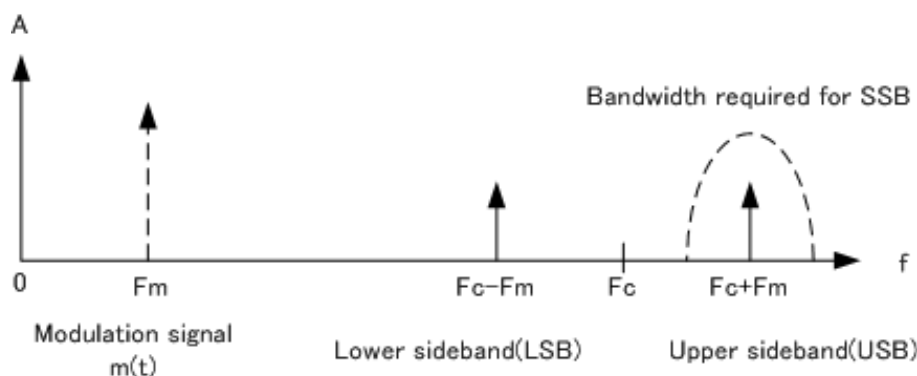
**Weaver’s Method:**



**Fig 18. Weaver method**

**Principle:** It uses two carriers: One is audio subcarrier at frequency  $f_0$  and other is RF carrier at frequency  $f_c$ . The input to the modulator is  $s(t) = \cos(2\pi f_m t)$ . It is the modulating signal of frequency  $f_m$

**Frequency spectrum of SSB:**

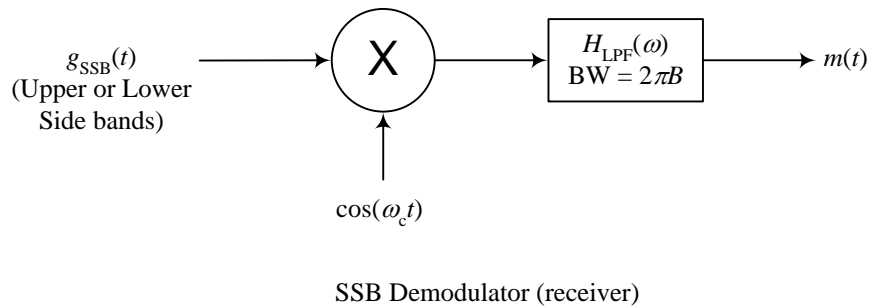


**Fig.19 Frequency spectrum of SSB**

Above shown is the frequency spectrum of SSB where only one sideband (USB) is retained. Here Bandwidth is  $f_m$ .

**8. SSB DEMODULATION**

For demodulation, the same block diagram of a simple DSBSC demodulator can be used. The sideband at the positive and negative frequencies merge (recombine) at zero frequency when the SSB signal is multiplied by the carrier. (Try the exercise of finding the output of the DSBSC demodulator in time- and frequency-domain when its input is either an USB or a LSB signal).



**Fig.20 SSB demodulation**

If the SSB signal includes a LARGE carrier, it can be demodulated using an envelope detector similar to that used for full AM signals

## 9. VSB MODULATION AND DEMODULATION

### Generation of VSB signals:

A vestigial-sideband system is a compromise between DSB and SSB. It inherits the advantages of DSB and SSB but avoids the r SSB. It inherits the advantages of DSB and SSB but avoids their disadvantages.

VSB signals are relatively easy to generate and their bandwidth is VSB signals are relatively easy to generate and their bandwidth is only slightly (typically 25 percent) greater than that of SSB signals.

In VSB, instead of rejecting one sideband completely as in SSB, a gradual cut-off of one sideband is accepted. All of the one sideband is transmitted and a small amount (vestigial) of the other sideband is transmitted. The filter is allowed to have a nonzero transition band.

The roll-off characteristic of the filter is such that the partial suppression of the transmitted sideband in the neighborhood of the carrier is exactly compensated for by the partial transmission of the carrier is exactly compensated for by the partial transmission of the corresponding part of the suppressed sideband.

Our goal is to determine the particular  $H(f)$  required to produce a modulated signal  $s(t)$  with desired spectral characteristics such with desired spectral characteristics, such that the original baseband signal  $m(t)$  may be recovered from  $s(t)$  by coherent detection.

$$\begin{aligned}
 S(f) &= U(f)H(f) \\
 &= \frac{A_c}{2} [M(f - f_c) + M(f + f_c)]H(f)
 \end{aligned}$$

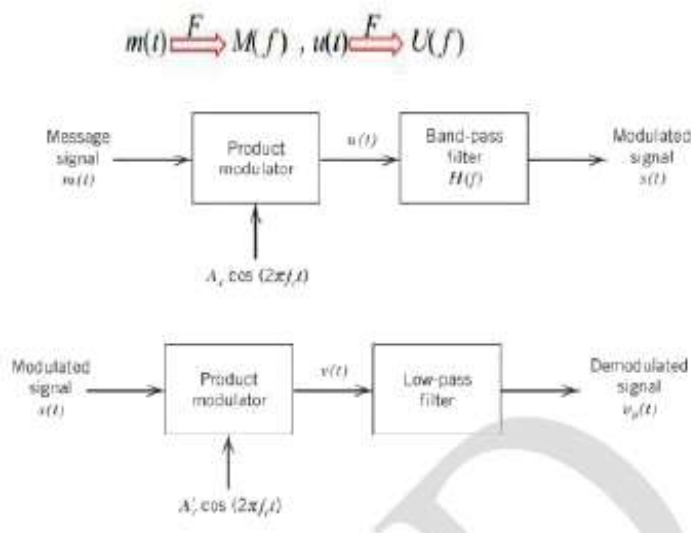


Fig.21 Filtering scheme of generation of VSB modulated signal

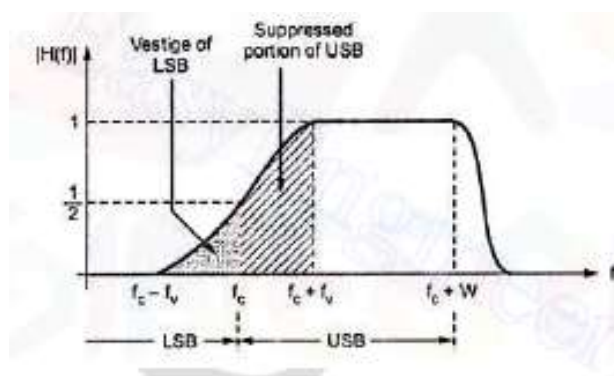


Fig22. Spectrum of VSB SC

**Amplitude response of VSB filter**

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(f) &= \frac{A_c}{2} [S(f - f_c) + S(f + f_c)] \\
 V(f) &= \frac{A_c A_c'}{4} M(f) [H(f - f_c) + H(f + f_c)] \\
 &\quad + \frac{A_c A_c'}{4} [M(f - 2f_c) H(f - f_c) + M(f + 2f_c) H(f + f_c)] \\
 V_o(f) &= \frac{A_c A_c'}{4} M(f) [H(f - f_c) + H(f + f_c)]
 \end{aligned}$$

↓ Low-pass filter

To obtain baseband signal  $m(t)$  at coherent detector output, we require  $V_o(f)$  to be a scaled version of  $M(f)$ , Therefore we can write

$$H(f - f_c) + H(f + f_c) = 1, -W \leq f \leq W$$

Now equation(a) can be written as

$$V_o = \frac{A_c A_c'}{4} m(t)$$

**COMPARISON OF AM MODULATION SYSTEMS**

Description	AM with the carrier	DSB – SC – AM	SSB – SC -AM	VSB - AM
Bandwidth	2fm	2fm	fm	fm<BW<2fm
Power Saving for Sinusoidal	33.33%	66.66%	83.3%	75%
Power Saving for non - Sinusoidal	33.33%	50%	75%	75%
Generation methods	Easier to generate	Not difficult	More difficult to generate	Difficult. But easier to generate than SSB-SC
Detection methods	Simple & Inexpensive	Difficult	More difficult	Difficult

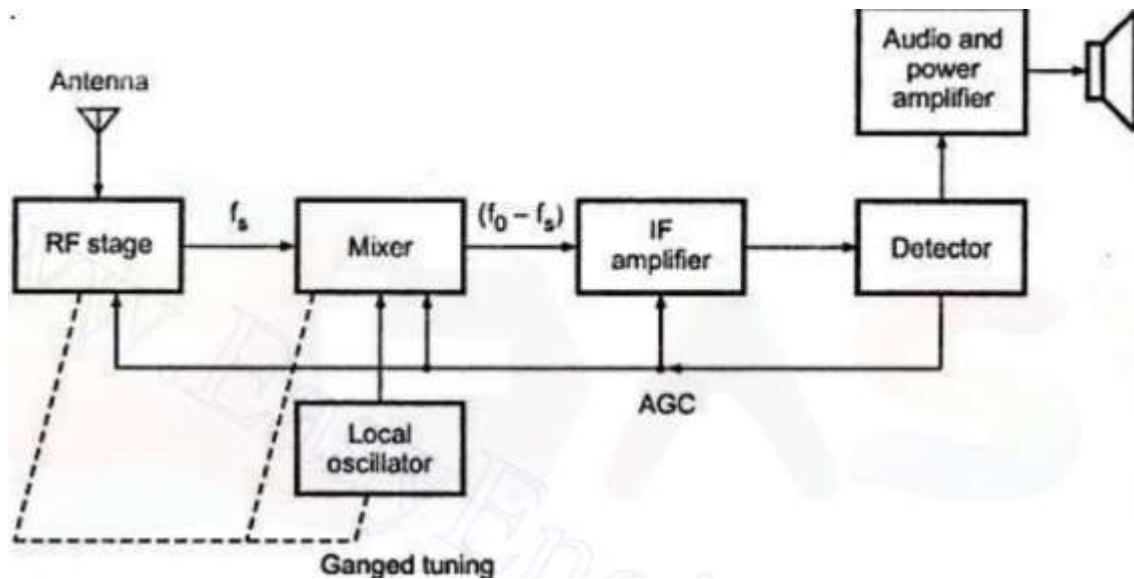
## 9.) SUPER HETERODYNE RECEIVER

In a broadcasting system whether it is based on amplitude modulation or frequency modulation, the receivers not only have the task of demodulating the modulated signal, but it is also required to perform some other system functions.

Carrier frequency tuning, the purpose of which is to select the desired signal (i.e.) desired radio or TV station) Filtering, which is required to separate the desire signal from other modulation signals that may be picked up along the way. Amplification, which is intended to compensate for the loss of signal power incurred in the course of transmission.

### R.F Section

The incoming amplitude modulated wave is picked up by the receiving antenna and is fed to the RF section. The RF section consists of a pre selector and an RF Amplifier. The pre selector is a band pass filter with an adjustable centre frequency that is tuned to the desired carrier frequency of the incoming signal. The main use of the preselected is to provide sufficient band limiting to prevent undesired ratio in frequency signal or image signal. The effectiveness of suppressing unwanted image signals increases as the number of selective stages in the RF section increases and as the ratio of intermediate to signal frequency increases. R.F amplifiers are used for better selectivity.



**Fig23. Super Heterodyne Receiver**

### Frequency Changer

The combination of mixer and local oscillator provides a heterodyning function whereby the incoming signal is converted to a predetermined fixed intermediate frequency, usually lower than the incoming carrier frequency. This frequency translation is achieved without disturbing the relation of the sidebands to the carrier. The result of heterodyning is to produce an intermediate frequency carrier defined by  $f_{IF} = f_{LO} - f_{RF}$

Where  $f_{LO}$  is the frequency of the local oscillator and  $f_{RF}$  is the carrier frequency of the incoming RF signal. Since the output of the frequency changer is neither the original input frequency nor the final baseband frequency, it is called as intermediate frequency. Sometimes the frequency changer circuits are referred to as the first detector, in which case the demodulator is called as second detector.

### IF Section

The IF section consists of one or more stages of tuned amplification with a bandwidth corresponding to that required for the particular type of modulation that the receiver intended to handle. The IF section provides most of the amplification purpose of which is to recover the baseband or message signal.

If coherent detection is used, then a coherent signal source must be provided in the receiver.

### Audio Amplifiers

The final stage of the super heterodyne receiver consists of one or more audio amplifiers which is used for the power amplification of the recovered message signal.

### Image frequency and its rejection ratio

In a super heterodyne receiver, the mixer will develop an intermediate frequency output when the input signal frequency is greater or less than the local oscillator frequency by an amount equal to intermediate frequency

### **Amplitude Limiter**

The basic difference between AM and FM super heterodyne receiver lies in the use of an FM Demodulator such as limiter frequency discriminator. In FM system the message signal is transmitted by the instantaneous value of carrier signal & its amplitude remain constant. Therefore any variation of the carrier's amplitude at the receiver input must result from noise or interference.

An amplitude limiter following the IF section is used to remove amplitude variations by clipping the modulated wave is rounded by a band pass filter that suppresses harmonics of the carrier frequency. Thus the filter output is again sinusoidal, with an amplitude that is practically independent of the carrier amplitude of the receiver input.

### **Performance Parameters of Receivers**

The performance of Radio receiver is measured on the basis of its selectivity, sensitivity, fidelity and image frequency rejection selectivity.

#### **Selectivity**

The selectivity is the ability of the receiver to select a signal of a desired frequency while rejecting all others. The selectivity of the receiver is obtained partially by RF amplifier and mainly by IF amplifiers. The selectivity shows the attenuation that the receiver offers to signals at frequencies near to the one to which it is tuned. Fig. shows the typical selectivity curve of the receiver. The selectivity depends upon tuned LC circuits used in RF and IF stages,  $f_r$  is the resonating (tuned) frequency and  $Q$  is quality factor of these LC Circuits, As shown in Fig. bandwidth should be narrow for better selectivity. Hence  $Q$  of the coil should be high.

#### **Sensitivity**

The ability of the receiver to pick up weak signals and amplify them is called sensitivity. It is often defined in terms of the voltage that must be applied to the receiver input terminals to give the standard output power, measured at the output terminals.

As the gain of the receiver is increased, sensitivity is also increased. The sensitivity is expressed in micro volts or decibels. Fig. shows the typical sensitivity curve of a receiver. As shown in the Fig., the sensitivity is decreased (i.e., voltage is increased) at high frequencies.

#### **Fidelity**

Fidelity is a measure of the ability of a communication system to produce at the output of the receiver, an exact replica of the original source information. This may also be defined as the degree to which the system accurately reproduces at the output, the **essential** characteristics of signals that are impressed upon the input

#### **Signal to noise Ratio**

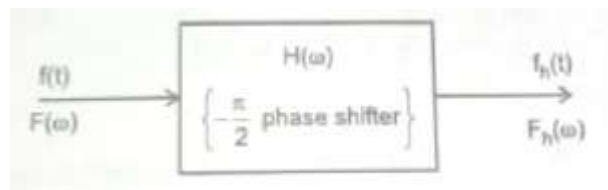
Signal to noise Ratio may be defined as the ratio of signal power to noise power at the receiver output. A good receiver should have high signal to noise ratio (SNR) which indicates negligible noise present at the output.

### Image Frequency Rejection

We know that local oscillator frequency is made higher than the signal frequency such that  $f_0 - f_s = f_i$ . Here  $f_i$  is IF. That is  $f_0 = f_s + f_i$ . The IF stage passes only  $f_i$ . If the frequency  $f_i = f_s + 2f_i$  appears at the input of the mixer, then the mixer will produce different frequency equal to  $f_i$ . This is equal to IF. The frequency  $f_{si}$  is called image frequency and is defined as the signal frequency plus twice the IF. The image frequency is converted in the IF stage and it is also amplified by IF amplifiers. This is the effect of two stations being received simultaneously. The image frequency rejection is done by tuned circuit in the RF stage. It depends upon the selectivity of the RF stage. The image rejection should be done before the RF stage.

### 10.) Hilbert Transform

If every frequency components of a signal  $f(t)$  is shifted by  $(-\pi/2)$  the resultant signal  $f_h(t)$  is the Hilbert transform of  $f(t)$ .

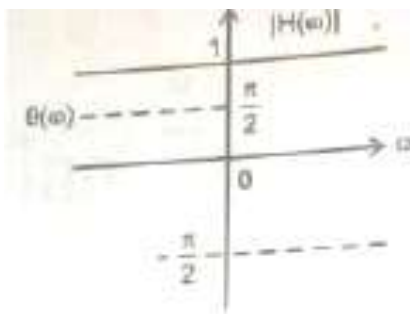


**Fig.24 Phase shifting system**

A signal  $f(t)$  is passed through a phase shift system  $H(\omega)$  and the output  $f_h(t)$  shown in above fig.

The characteristics of the of the system specified as follows:

- i) The magnitude frequency components present in  $f(t)$  remains unchanged when it is passed through the system that is  $H(\omega) = 1$  and
- ii) The phase of the positive frequency components is shifted by  $-\pi/2$ . Since the phase spectrum  $\theta(\omega)$  has an odd symmetry, the phase of the negative frequency components is shifted by  $\pi/2$ .  $H(\omega)$  and  $\theta(\omega)$  are plotted in Fig by continuous and dotted lines respectively.



**Fig 25. Transfer function of phase shifter**

### Properties of Hilbert transform

Hilbert transform has the following properties

1. A signal  $f(t)$  and its Hilbert transform have the same magnitude spectrum.
2. A signal  $f(t)$  and its Hilbert transform  $sh(t)$  have the same energy density spectrum.
3. If the Hilbert transform of  $fh(t)$  is  $-f(t)$ , then  $fh(t)$  is Hilbert transform of  $s(t)$  that is if

$$H[f(t)] = f_H(t)$$

$$H[f_H(t)] = -f(t)$$

Where  $H$  denotes the Hilbert transform.

1. A signal  $f(t)$  and its Hilbert transform  $fh(t)$  are mutually orthogonal over the time interval  $(-\infty, \infty)$  that is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) f_h(t) dt = 0$$

2. A signal  $f(t)$  and its Hilbert transform  $fh(t)$  have the same auto correlation function. Some useful Hilbert transform.

### Application of Hilbert transform pair

1. Generation of SSB signal
2. Design of minimum phase type filters Representation of band pass signals

$$1. \cos \omega_c t \xrightarrow{H} \sin \omega_c t$$

$$2. \sin \omega_c t \xrightarrow{H} \cos \omega_c t$$

$$3. \sin(\omega_c t + \theta) \xrightarrow{H} \cos(\omega_c t) + \theta - \frac{\pi}{2}$$

4. Let  $m(t)$  be a low pass signal with cutoff frequency  $W_1$  and  $c(t)$  a high pass signal with lower cut off frequency  $\omega_2 > W_1$ . Then

$$m(t)c(t) \xrightarrow{H} m(t)c_c(t)$$



**Pre envelope:**

The pre envelope of a real signal  $x(t)$  is the complex function

$$x_+(t) = x(t) + j \hat{x}(t).$$

The pre envelope is useful in treating band pass signals and systems. This is due to the result

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2 X(v) , v > 0 \\ X(0) , v = 0 \\ X_+(v) 0, v < 0 \end{array} \right.$$

**Complex envelope:**

The complex envelope of a band pass signal  $x(t)$  is

$$X'(t) = x_+(t)$$