

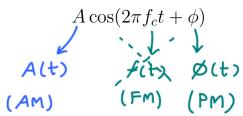
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ECS332 2015/1 Part II.3 Dr.Prapun

5 Angle Modulation: FM and PM

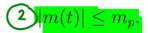
5.1. We mentioned in 4.1 that a sinusoidal carrier signal



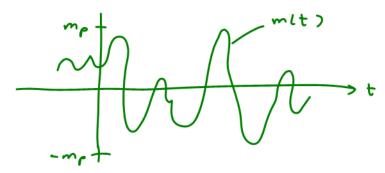
has three basic parameters: amplitude, frequency, and phase. Varying these parameters in proportion to the baseband signal results in amplitude modulation (AM), frequency modulation (FM), and phase modulation (PM), respectively.

5.2. As usual, we will again assume that the baseband signal m(t) is bandlimited to B; that is, |M(f)| = 0 for |f| > B.

As in the AM section, we will also assume that



In other words, m(t) is bounded between $-m_p$ and m_p .



Definition 5.3. *Phase modulation (PM)*:

phase modulated
$$x_{\mathrm{PM}}\left(t
ight) = A\cos\left(2\pi f_{c}t + \phi + k_{p}m\left(t
ight)
ight)$$

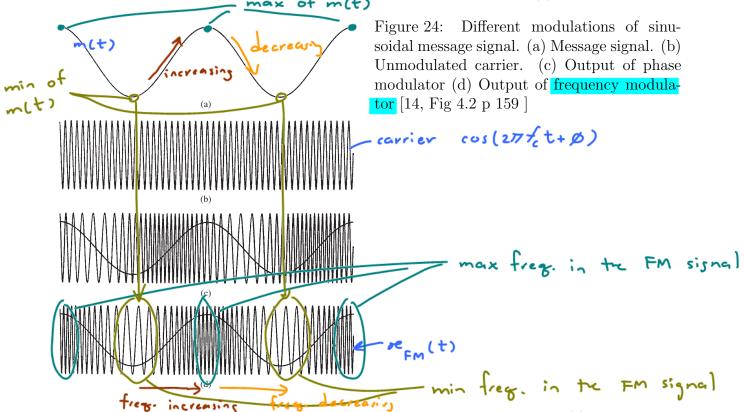
Definition 5.4. The main characteristic²¹ of **frequency modulation** (FM) is that the carrier frequency f(t) would be varied with time so that

$$f(t) = f_c + km(t), \qquad (49)$$

where k is an arbitrary constant.

• The arbitrary constant k is sometimes denoted by k_f to distinguish it from a similar constant in PM.

Example 5.5. With a sinusoidal message signal in Figure 24a, the frequency deviation of the FM modulator output in Figure 24d is proportional to m(t). Thus, the (instantaneous) frequency of the FM modulator output is maximum when m(t) is maximum and minimum when m(t) is minimum.

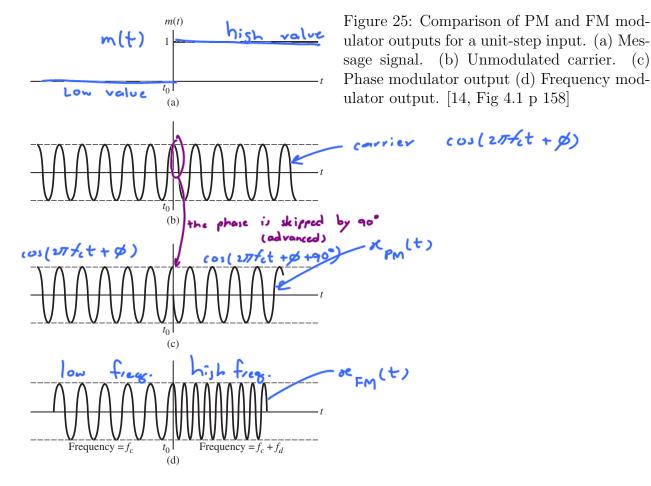


The phase deviation of the PM output is proportional to m(t). However, because the phase is varied continuously, it is not straightforward (yet) to

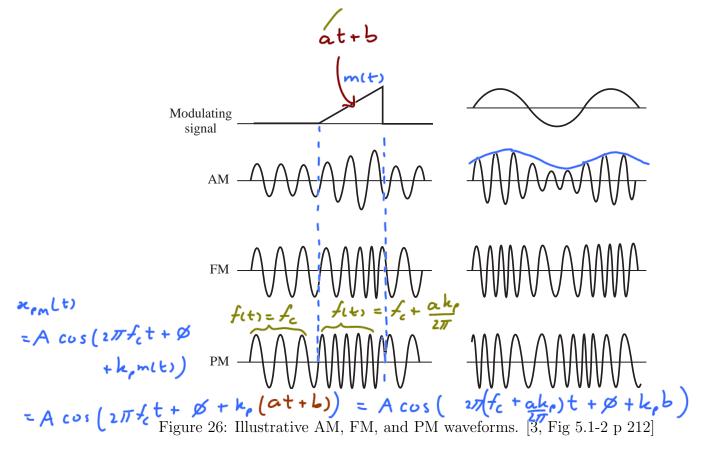
²¹Treat this as a practical definition. The more rigorous definition will be provided in 5.15.

see how Figure 24c is related to m(t). In Example 5.18, we will come back to this example and re-analyze the PM output.

Example 5.6. Figure 25 illustrates the outputs of PM and FM modulators when the message is a unit-step function.



- For the PM modulator output,
 - the (instantaneous) frequency is f_c for both $t < t_0$ and $t > t_0$
 - the phase of the unmodulated carrier is advanced by $k_p = \frac{\pi}{2}$ radians for $t > t_0$ giving rise to a signal that is discontinuous at $t = t_0$.
- For the FM modulator output,
 - the frequency is f_x for $t < t_0$, and the frequency is $f_c + f_d$ for $t > t_0$
 - \circ the phase is, however, continuous at $t = t_0$.



Example 5.7. Figure 26 illustrates the outputs of AM, FM, and PM modulators when the message is a triangular (ramp) pulse.

To understand more about FM, we will first need to know what it actually means to vary the frequency of a sinusoid.

5.1 Instantaneous Frequency

Definition 5.8. The *generalized sinusoidal* signal is a signal of the form

$$x(t) = A\cos(\theta(t)) \tag{50}$$

where $\theta(t)$ is called the **generalized angle**.

- The generalized angle for conventional sinusoid is $2\pi f_c t + \phi$.
- In [3, p 208], $\theta(t)$ of the form $2\pi f_c t + \phi(t)$ is called the **total instantaneous angle**.

Definition 5.9. If $\theta(t)$ in (50) contains the message information m(t), we have a process that may be termed **angle modulation**.

- The amplitude of an angle-modulated wave is constant.
- Another name for this process is **exponential modulation**.

$$\alpha(t) = A\cos(\theta(t)) = A\operatorname{Re}\left\{e^{j\theta(t)}\right\}$$

$$\cos \alpha = \operatorname{Re}\left\{e^{j\alpha}\right\}$$

- The motivation for this name is clear when we write x(t) as $A\text{Re }\{e^{j\theta(t)}\}$.
- \circ It also emphasizes the nonlinear relationship between x(t) and m(t).
- Since exponential modulation is a nonlinear process, the modulated wave x(t) does not resemble the message waveform m(t).
- **5.10.** Suppose we want the frequency f_c of a carrier $A\cos(2\pi f_c t)$ to vary with time as in (49). It is tempting to consider the signal

$$A\cos(2\pi g(t)t),\tag{51}$$

where g(t) is the desired frequency at time t.

Example 5.11. Consider the generalized sinusoid signal of the form 51 above with $g(t) = t^2$. We want to find its frequency at t = 2.

(a) Suppose we guess that its frequency at time t should be g(t). Then, at time t=2, its frequency should be $t^2=4$. However, when compared with $\cos(2\pi(4)t)$ in Figure 27a, around t=2, the "frequency" of $\cos(2\pi(t^2)t)$ is quite different from the 4-Hz cosine approximation. Therefore, 4 Hz is too low to be the frequency of $\cos(2\pi(t^2)t)$ around t=2.

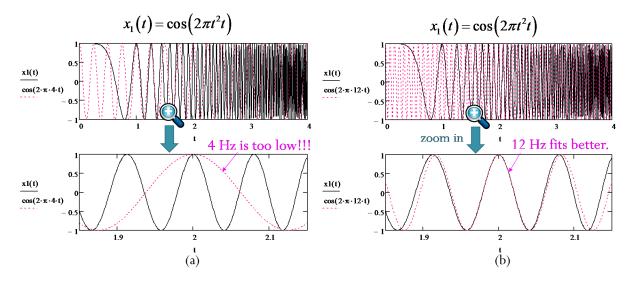


Figure 27: Approximating the frequency of $\cos(2\pi(t^2)t)$ by (a) $\cos(2\pi(4)t)$ and (b) $\cos(2\pi(12)t)$.

(b) Alternatively, around t=2, Figure 27b shows that $\cos(2\pi(12)t)$ seems to provide a good approximation. So, 12 Hz would be a better answer.

Definition 5.12. For generalized sinusoid $A\cos(\theta(t))$, the **instantaneous frequency**²² at time t is given by

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d}{dt} \theta(t). \tag{52}$$

Example 5.13. For the signal $\cos(2\pi(t^2)t)$ in Example 5.11,

$$\theta\left(t\right) = 2\pi\left(t^2\right)t$$

and the instantaneous frequency is

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d}{dt} \theta(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d}{dt} \left(2\pi \left(t^2 \right) t \right) = 3t^2.$$

In particular, $f(2) = 3 \times 2^2 = 12$.

5.14. The instantaneous frequency formula (52) implies

$$\theta(t) = 2\pi \int_{-\infty}^{t} f(\tau)d\tau = \theta(t_0) + 2\pi \int_{t_0}^{t} f(\tau)d\tau.$$
 (53)

FM and PM 5.2

Definition 5.15. Frequency modulation (FM): $\lor(t) = k_p m_p(t)$

$$x_{\text{FM}}(t) = A\cos\left(2\pi f_c t + \phi + 2\pi k_f \int_{-\infty}^{t} m(\tau)d\tau\right). \tag{54}$$

 $x_{\text{FM}}(t) = A\cos\left(2\pi f_c t + \phi + 2\pi k_f \int_{-\infty}^{t} m(\tau) d\tau\right). \tag{54}$ The instantaneous frequency is given by $f(t) = f_c + k_f m(t).$

²²Although f(t) is measured in hertz, it should not be equated with spectral frequency. Spectral frequency f is the independent variable of the frequency domain, whereas instantaneous frequency f(t) is a timedependent property of waveforms with exponential modulation.

5.16. Phase modulation (PM): The phase-modulated signal is defined in Definition 5.3 to be

$$x_{\text{PM}}(t) = A\cos\left(2\pi f_c t + \phi + k_p m(t)\right)$$
Its instantaneous frequency is
$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d}{dt} \theta(t) = f_c + \frac{k_p}{2\pi} \mathring{m}(t)$$
(55)

Therefore, the instantaneous frequency of the output of the PM modulator is

- maximum when the slope of m(t) is maximum and
- minimum when the slope of m(t) is minimum.

Example 5.17. Sketch FM and PM waves for the modulating signal m(t) shown in 28a.

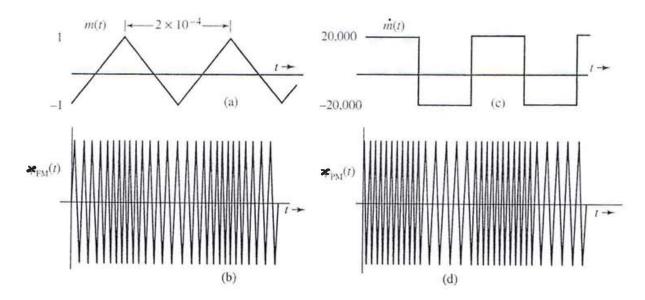
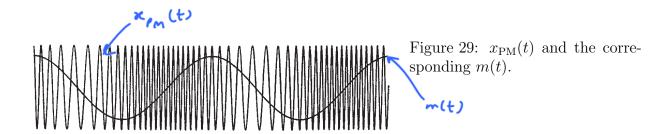


Figure 28: FM and PM waveforms generated from the same message.

This "indirect" method of sketching $x_{PM}(t)$ (using $\dot{m}(t)$ to frequency-modulate a carrier) works as long as m(t) is a continuous signal. If m(t) is discontinuous, this indirect method fails at points of discontinuities. In such a case, a direct approach should be used to specify the sudden phase changes.



Example 5.18. Consider $x_{PM}(t)$ in Example 5.5. It is copied here in Figure 29 along with the corresponding message m(t) which generates it.

5.19. Relationship between FM and PM:

- Equation (54) implies that one can produce frequency-modulated signal from a phase modulator.
- Equation (55) implies that one can produce phase-modulated signal from a frequency modulator.
- The two observations above are summarized in Figure 30.

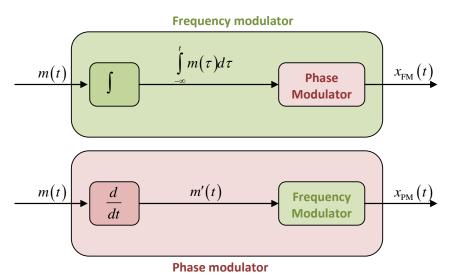


Figure 30: With the help of integrating and differentiating networks, a phase modulator can produce frequency modulation and vice versa [4, Fig 5.2 p 255].

• By looking at an angle-modulated signal x(t), there is no way of telling whether it is FM or PM.

- Compare Figure 24c and 24d in Example 5.5.
- In fact, it is meaning less to ask an angle-modulated wave whether it is FM or PM. It is analogous to asking a married man with children whether he is a father or a son. [5, p 255]

 $\phi(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} M(\mathcal{F}) \times H(\mathcal{F}) = \overline{\Phi}(\mathcal{F})$

5.20. Generalized angle modulation (or exponential modulation):

$$x(t) = A\cos\left(2\pi f_c t + \theta_0 + \frac{(m*h)(t)}{1}\right)$$

where h is causal.

- (a) Frequency modulation (FM): $h(t) = 2\pi k_f 1[t \ge 0]$
- (b) Phase modulation (PM): $h(t) = k_p \delta(t)$. $m * h = m * k_p \delta = k_p m$
- **5.21.** So far, we have spoken rather loosely of amplitude and phase modulation. If we modulate two real signals a(t) and $\phi(t)$ onto a cosine to produce the real signal $x(t) = a(t)\cos(\omega_c t + \phi(t))$, then this language seems unambiguous: we would say the respective signals amplitude- and phase-modulate the cosine. But is it really unambiguous?

The following example suggests that the question deserves thought.

Example 5.22. [8, p 15] Let's look at a "purely amplitude-modulated" signal

$$x_1(t) = a(t)\cos(\omega_c t).$$

Assuming that a(t) is bounded such that $0 \le a(t) \le A$, there is a well-defined function

$$\theta(t) = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{A}x_1(t)\right) - \omega_c t.$$

Observe that the signal

$$x_2(t) = A\cos\left(\omega_c t + \theta(t)\right)$$

is exactly the same as $x_1(t)$ but $x_2(t)$ looks like a "purely phase-modulated" signal.

5.23. Example 5.22 shows that, for a given real signal x(t), the factorization $x(t) = a(t)\cos(\omega_c t + \phi(t))$ is not unique. In fact, there is an infinite number of ways for x(t) to be factored into "amplitude" and "phase".