

Lab Notebook: Fourier Methods

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Contents

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Intro | 2 |
| 0.1 Familiarizing with Equipment (Chapter 0-2) | 2 |
| 1 Signal Recovery Under Noise | 8 |
| Chapter 6: Noise Waveforms | 8 |
| Chapter 15: Signal Recovery Under Noise | 16 |
| 2 AM Radio Reception | 18 |
| 2.1 Chapter 3: Modulated Waveforms - Amplitude Modulation | 18 |
| Chapter 3: Modulated Waveforms - Amplitude Modulation | 18 |
| Chapter 11: AM Radio Reception | 20 |
| 3 The Fluxgate Magnetometer | 25 |
| Chapter 13: Understanding the Fluxgate Magnetometer | 25 |

Intro

The Three Experiment Timeline

- 7 Class sessions
- Signal recovery under noise: Ch 6 & 15
- AM Radio Reception: Ch 3 & 11
- The Fluxgate Magnetometer: Ch 3 & 13

0.1 Familiarizing with Equipment (Chapter 0-2)

Equipment list:

- SR770 FFT Network Analyzer (main instrument)
- Keysight 33500B Waveform Generator (AC signal source) we will call
- Tektronix TDS 1012 (oscilloscope/scope)
- Teach Spin Fourier Methods Electronic Modules (multi-tool)
- BNC (Bayonet-Neil-Concelman) cable: In short, a coaxial cable with default 50 ohm characteristic impedance for RF applications. All inputs and outputs will be connected via BNC cables.

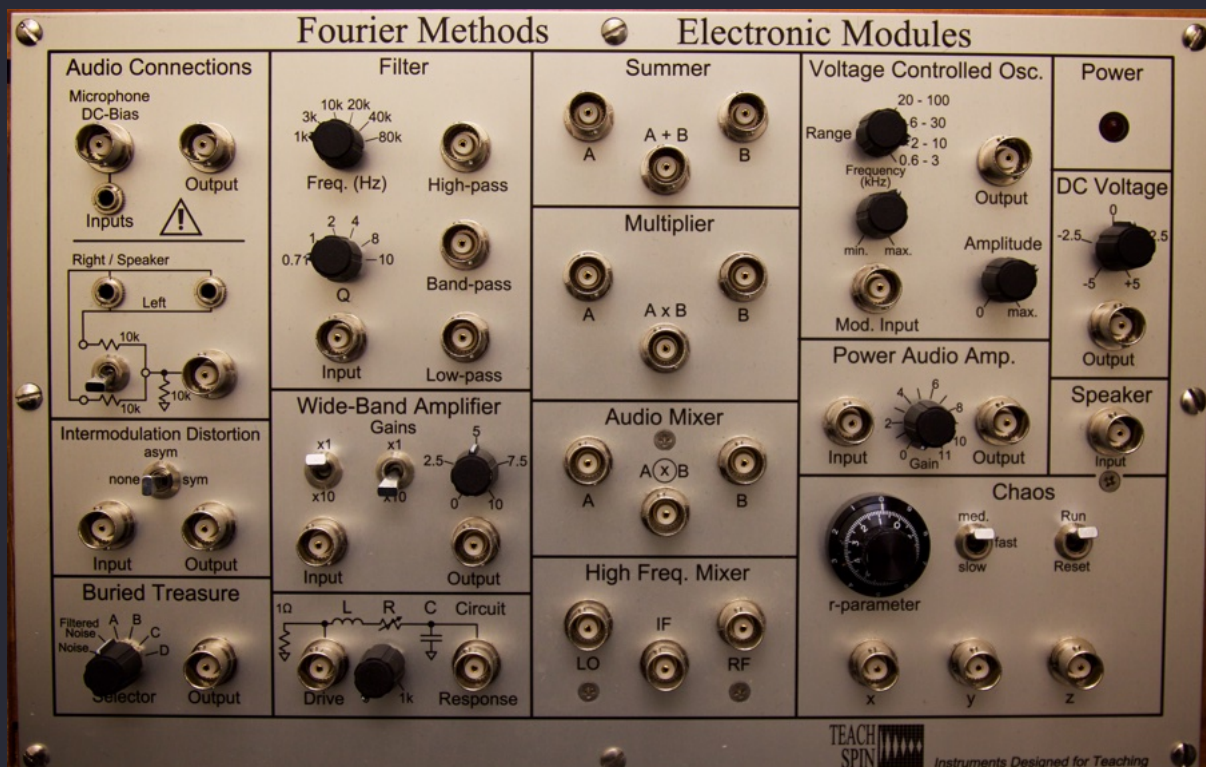


Figure 0.1: Teach Spin Fourier Methods Electronic Modules

Fourier Series (MAIN CONCEPT)

Any periodic function $f(t)$ with period T can be expressed as a sum of sines and cosines:

$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)$$

$$a_0 = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(t) dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(t) \cos(n\omega t) dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(t) \sin(n\omega t) dt$$

where $\omega = 2\pi/T$ is the fundamental frequency and n is the harmonic number. Or for voltage

$$V(t) = V_{dc} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [C_n \cos(2\pi nt/T) + S_n \sin(2\pi nt/T)] \quad (0.1)$$

Observations:

For our first set of experiments we were simply trying to gain an understanding of the equipment and Fourier Analysis in general. We practiced by displaying several signals in the time and frequency domain using the oscilloscope and SSR770 respectively. From the 33500B, output a 10 kHz, 1 V source to the SIGNAL IN of the SR770 with

- Simple sine wave: Selecting the Sine waveform on the 33500B, we can see the outputs in the time & frequency domains as shown in Fig. 0.2 and 0.3



Figure 0.2: TDS 1012 oscilloscope view



Figure 0.3: SR770 FFT Network Analyzer view

- Square wave: Changing the waveform to SQUARE on the 33500B, we can intuit from the fourier series the coefficients are given by

$$a_0 = 0$$

$$a_n = 0$$

$$b_n = \frac{4}{n\pi} \sin(n\pi/2)$$

Thus the square wave is a sum of odd harmonics of the fundamental frequency with amplitudes

$$\left[\frac{4}{\pi}, \frac{4}{3\pi}, \frac{4}{5\pi}, \frac{4}{7\pi}, \dots \right]$$

for odd n as shown in Fig. 0.5. In Fig. 0.4 we can see the shape of the waveform in the time

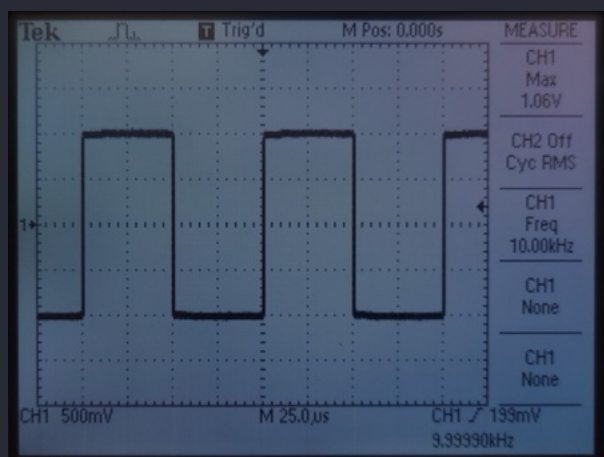


Figure 0.4: TDS 1012 oscilloscope view



Figure 0.5: SR770 FFT Network Analyzer view

domain, and the odd harmonics are clearly shown in the SR770 frequency domain (Fig. 0.5).

- Saw Wave: (SAW waveform on 33500B) The saw wave is a sum of all harmonics of the fundamental frequency as shown in Fig. 0.7.



Figure 0.6: TDS 1012 oscilloscope view

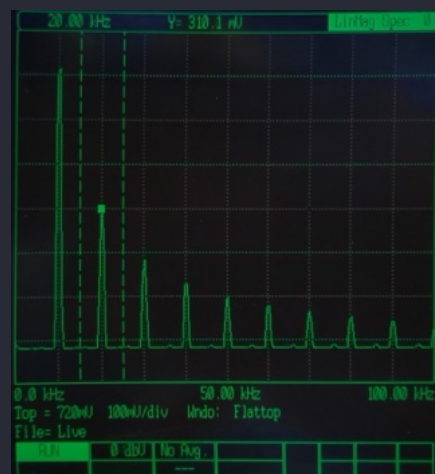


Figure 0.7: SR770 FFT Network Analyzer view

- Triangle Wave: (TRIANGLE waveform on 33500B) The triangle wave is a sum of all odd harmonics of the fundamental frequency as shown in Fig. 0.9. But the amplitude of the harmonics decreases

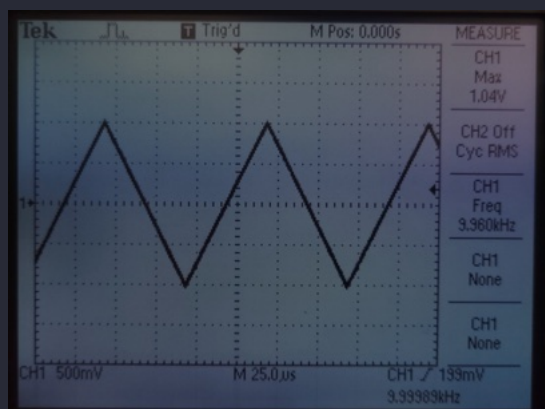


Figure 0.8: TDS 1012 oscilloscope view



Figure 0.9: SR770 FFT Network Analyzer view

by a factor of $1/n^2$. This power law makes the amplitude hard to read in the linear scale, but in the log scale, the amplitudes are clearly visible as shown in Fig. 0.10.

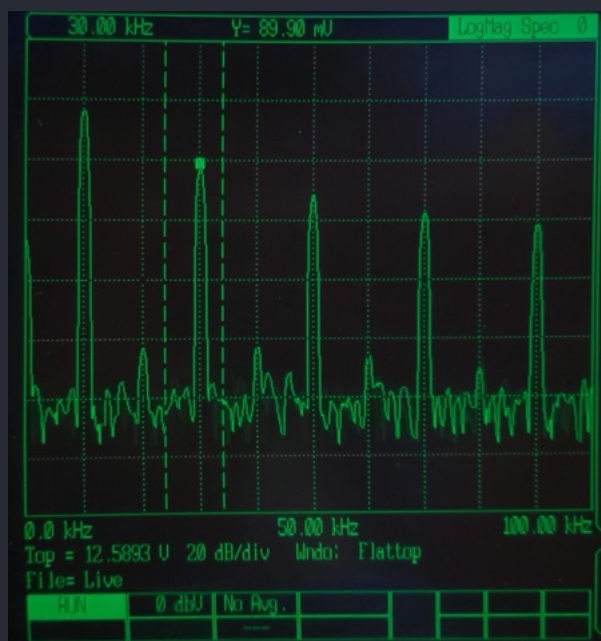


Figure 0.10: SR770 LOG MAGNITUDE

Superposition of sine waves

- 770: 40 kHz, 1 V sine wave \rightarrow SUMMER input A
- 33500B: 50 kHz, 2 V sine wave \rightarrow SUMMER input B
- SUMMER output \rightarrow 770 SIGNAL IN & TDS 1012

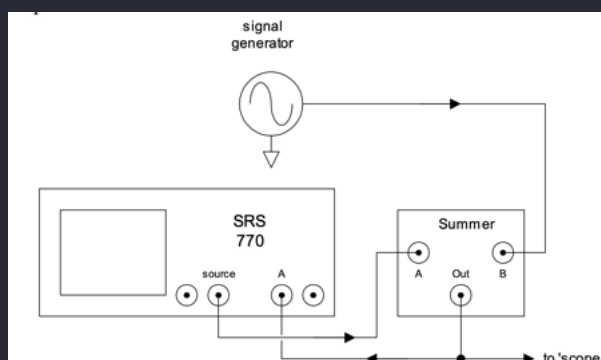


Figure 0.11: Diagram of setup

From the 770, we can easily see the two sine waves in the frequency domain as shown in Fig. [insert fig 0.11], but the time domain (scope) does not clearly describe the summation of the two waves.

Similar amplitude

- 770: 50 kHz, 1 V sine wave \rightarrow SUMMER input A
- 33500B: 51 kHz, 1 V sine wave \rightarrow SUMMER input B

In the full (100 kHz) span view, we can't see the two peaks. To increase the frequency resolution, we can reduce the span in the 770 FREQ menu, but this will increase the acquisition time.

e.g. a full span of 100 kHz has an acquisition time of 4 ms; the ‘voltage sampling’ rate is 256 kSa/s, or 256 samples per ms i.e. 1024 samples in 4 ms.

For our experiment, we set the span to 1.56 kHz to clearly see the two peaks, but this costs us an acquisition time of 256 ms or $256 * 256 \text{ samples/ms} = 65536 \text{ samples}$. This trade-off can be described by the ‘frequency duration uncertainty principle’:

$$(\text{frequency resolution achievable}) \cdot (\text{acquisition time required}) \geq \text{a number}$$

The 770 magic number is

$$100 \text{ kHz} \cdot 4 \text{ ms} \geq 400 \text{ kHz ms}$$

which we can use to find the minimum acquisition time for a given frequency resolution e.g. the 1.5625 kHz span required

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{acquisition time req}) &\geq 400/(\text{freq resolution}) \\ &= 400/1.5625 = 256 \text{ ms} \end{aligned}$$

Windowing & Different amplitude Recommended windowing:

- Uniform: close spaced peaks with similar amplitudes
- Flat top: accurate peak height measurement
- Hanning: good for spectral resolution
- BMH: good for weak peak near strong peak, but not the best resolution for top peak & amplitude accuracy

Summary

We have learned the basic concepts of Fourier series and the Fourier transform, and analyzed basic waveforms from the 33500 in both the time and frequency domains using the scope and 770 respectively. Furthermore, there are trade offs between frequency resolution and acquisition time, and the choice of windowing function which can affect the accuracy of the measurement.

1 Signal Recovery Under Noise

Chapter 6: Noise Waveforms

After reading chapters 6 & 15 we will be proceeding with the Signal Recovery from under noise experiment. We will be attempting to locate an unknown signal amongst some random noise.

Initial Setup T-Spin's "buried treasure" (BT) module through a F splitter to both the 'scope and the SR770 as shown in Fig. 1.1 and 1.2.



Figure 1.1: BT Noise on scope (Time Domain)



Figure 1.2: BT Noise on SR770 (Frequency domain)

Changing the rotary switch on the BT module to "filtered noise" (0.2) will filter out all frequencies about the full span of the 770, i.e., all frequencies above 100 kHz will be filtered out which is shown in Fig. 1.3 and 1.4.

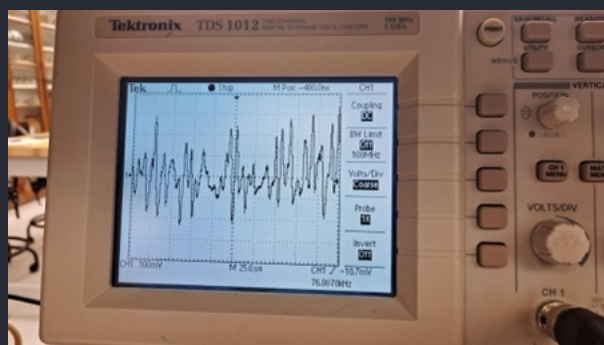


Figure 1.3: Filtered Noise on scope



Figure 1.4: Filtered Noise on SR770

By averaging out the noise using 64 averages we achieved a flat waveform, demonstrating that the power spectrum for white noise, because it is statistically random, is flat across frequencies. The 64 in this case, refers to the idea that during acquisition we are taking an average for ever 4 ms



Figure 1.5: Filtered Noise on SR770 with 64 averages

We then switched the noise to “pink” noise and averaged out the waveform to its power spectrum.



Figure 1.6: Pink Noise on SR770 with 64 averages

In attempting to record the V_{rms} for a monochromatic 1 V, 50 kHz sinusoidal wave, we erroneously plug our BNC cable into the sync output of the waveform generator and saw a square wave. Which makes sense due to information rates being in binary format.

We eventually recorded the power spectrum of a monochromatic sinusoidal wave of 1 V and 50 kHz (1.7), and the $V_{\text{rms}} = 0.707$ V as measured by the scope.



Figure 1.7: 1 V, 50 kHz sinusoidal wave on SR770

Measuring RMS Voltage of Noise For white noise, to find the mean square measure of voltage we must take the Power spectral density $PSD = VSD^2$ and integrate over the frequency space:

$$\int_0^{\infty} S(f)df = \langle V^2(t) \rangle$$

So in the case of white noise (Fig. 1.7)

$$\int_0^{100 \text{ kHz}} S(f)df = PSD * (\text{Frequency Range}) = \left(\frac{244 \text{ pV}}{\sqrt{\text{Hz}}} \right)^2 * 100 \text{ kHz} = 5.96 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}$$

Furthermore, we know the relation of mean-square voltage and the total power:

$$V_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\langle V^2(t) \rangle} = 0.0772 \text{ V}$$

Noise Plus Sine Wave

Experiment Part 1: Setup The Signal Pipeline TM:

BT Filtered Noise or Buried Signal \rightarrow WIDE BAND AMP 25x \rightarrow Low Pass 20 kHz, $Q = 0.71 \rightarrow$ Summer adding Sine 10kHz, 0.3 V (Output off initially).

770 Config

- SPAN: 195 Hz
- AVERAGES: 64 (2.048 s)
- MEASure: PSD (actually VSD but the 770 calls it PSD)
- WINDOW: Flattop (for peak amplitude)
- Display: Log Magnitude
- CENTER Freq. 10 kHz

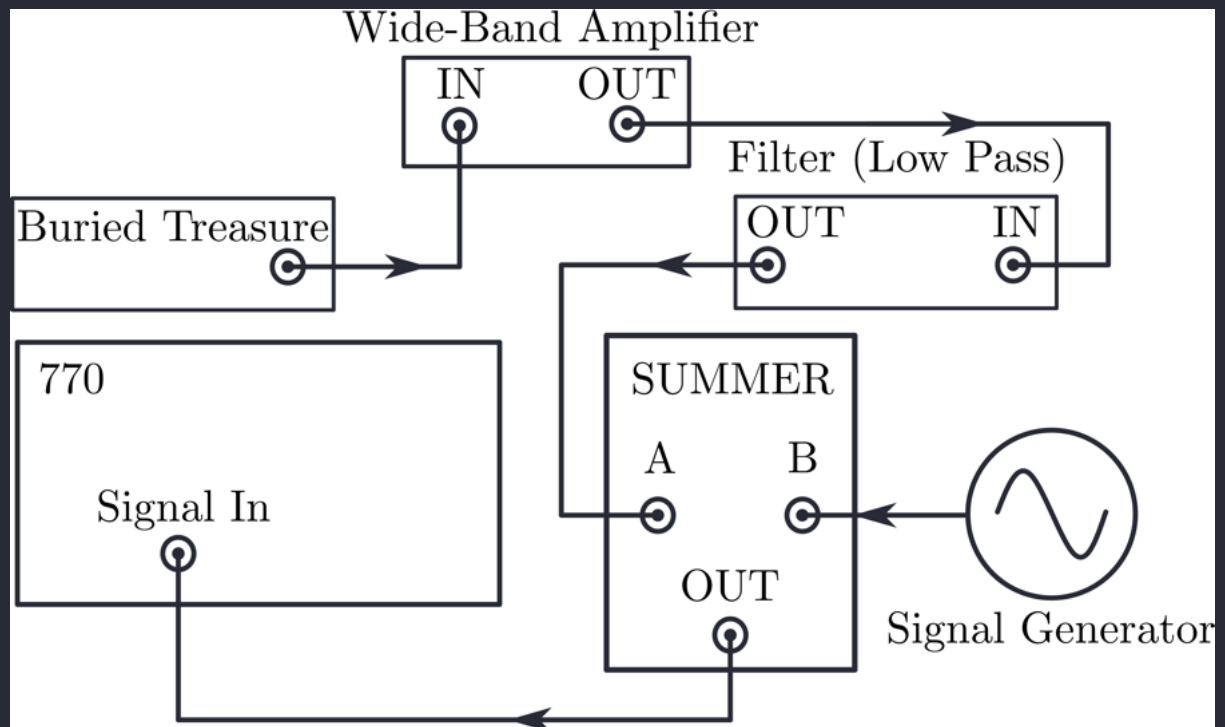


Figure 1.8: Control setup for Signal Under Noise

Pre Trial Observations Scope vs. 770

The scope obviously shows a noise signal where we can't see the sine wave, but the 770 clearly shows the sine wave as shown in Fig. 1.9.

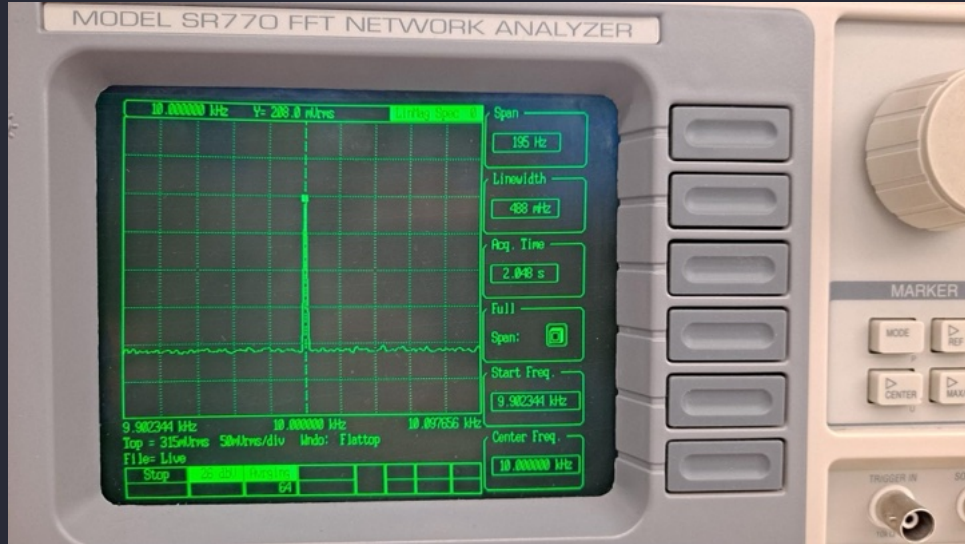


Figure 1.9: Sine wave on SR770 with noise



Figure 1.10: Filtered Noise with Sine wave on SR770



Figure 1.11: Filtered Noise without Sine wave on SR770

Procedure

- With the sine wave off (Fig 1.11), take a sample of the VSD at 5, 10, 15, 20 kHz in order to calculate the average VSD of the noise floor. We have removed 0 Hz from the calculation as VSD goes to infinity as it approaches 0 Hz.
- Measure $\langle V_n^2 \rangle$ using the equation for relating the spectral density to the mean-square voltage:

$$\langle V_n^2 \rangle = \int_0^\infty S(f) df = PSD * (\text{Frequency Range}) = VSD^2 * 20 \text{ kHz}$$

- Measure the mean-square measure of the signal sine wave $\langle V_s^2 \rangle$ by connecting the sine signal directly to the 770 and measuring the V_{rms} using the Voltz rms UNITS menu & 64 Averages.
- Calculate the predict the measure of the signal (sine wave) V_s plus noise V_n using

$$\langle [V_s + V_n]^2 \rangle = \langle V_s^2 \rangle + \langle V_n^2 \rangle = \langle V_T^2 \rangle$$

where the cross terms are zero since the signal and noise are independent of each other.

- Measure $\langle V_T^2 \rangle$ using the TDS1012 scope and calculate the average for 20 samples for the Signal plus noise input:
 - Finding rms voltage on scope: Go to SETTINGS; ACQUIRESE; SAMPLE; AVERAGE (16). Then take 20 samples and average them (refer to Fig. 1.12).

- Check if the measured value is within the predicted value. Then calculate how much of the signal plus waveform is due to the signal from a power basis i.e.

$$\% \text{ Signal} = \frac{\langle V_s^2 \rangle}{\langle V_T^2 \rangle} * 100\%$$

- Repeat two more trial but with WIDEBAND AMP ($1 \times 1 \times 2.5 = 2.5$) and with Sine wave at 1 V (25x WIDEBAND AMP).

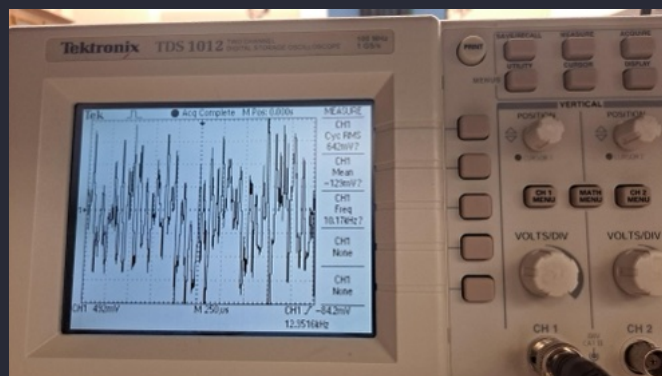


Figure 1.12: Sample measurement of $V_T = 642 \text{ mV}$ on TDS1012

Data

| Freq (Hz) | Trial 1 (mV/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$) | Trial 2 (mV/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$) | Trial 3 (mV/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$) |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 5 | 4.635 | 0.4759 | 4.268 |
| 10 | 4.52 | 0.4298 | 4.306 |
| 15 | 4.174 | 0.4145 | 3.853 |
| 20 | 3.193 | 0.307 | 3.201 |
| Avg | 4.1 | 0.41 | 3.9 |
| STD (\pm mV) | 0.7 | 0.07 | 0.5 |
| Signal V_s (mV) | 207.1 | 208.8 | 703.9 |

Table 1: 770 measurements for Average V_{rms} for Noise and Signal

| Sample | Trial 1 (mV) | Trial 2 (mV) | Trial (V) |
|----------------|--------------|--------------|-----------|
| 1 | 834 | 218 | 1.69 |
| 2 | 845 | 187 | 0.759 |
| 3 | 468 | 191 | 1.34 |
| 4 | 787 | 252 | 0.851 |
| 5 | 389 | 244 | 0.964 |
| 6 | 745 | 213 | 0.95 |
| 7 | 532 | 213 | 0.633 |
| 8 | 635 | 257 | 0.879 |
| 9 | 725 | 220 | 1.22 |
| 10 | 523 | 249 | 1.4 |
| 11 | 960 | 197 | 0.588 |
| 12 | 401 | 223 | 1.17 |
| 13 | 676 | 249 | 0.857 |
| 14 | 380 | 189 | 1.1 |
| 15 | 749 | 204 | 0.812 |
| 16 | 512 | 208 | 0.817 |
| 17 | 621 | 163 | 0.796 |
| 18 | 625 | 169 | 0.942 |
| 19 | 528 | 232 | 0.683 |
| 20 | 672 | 235 | 1.32 |
| AVG (V) | 0.6 | 0.22 | 1.0 |
| STD (\pm V) | 0.2 | 0.03 | 0.3 |

Table 2: Scope measurements for V_T

Example calculation for the rms measure of the signal plus noise in Trial 1:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle V_n^2 \rangle &= PSD * \Delta f = \left(4.1 \text{ mV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}} \right)^2 * 20 \text{ kHz} = 0.34 \text{ V} \\
 \langle V_s^2 \rangle &= 207.1 \text{ mV}^2 = 0.04 \text{ V} \\
 \langle V_T^2 \rangle &= 0.34 \text{ V} + 0.04 \text{ V} = 0.38 \text{ mV} \\
 V_T &= \sqrt{0.38 \text{ V}} = 0.62 \text{ V}
 \end{aligned}$$

and error

$$\delta V_n = 2 * 0.7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}} * 20\,000 \text{ Hz} = 30 \implies \delta V_T = \frac{1}{2} * 30 = 15 \text{ V}$$

The error bars on the 770 measurements are not very useful here since we are propagating the average spectral density based on only 4 frequencies (5, 10, 15, 20 Hz) onto 20,000 Hz. So we will rather use the error bars from the scope measurement and ignore the 770 error bars.

| | Trial 1 | Trial 2 | Trial 3 |
|----------|---------|---------|---------|
| V_n^2 | 0.341 | 0.0033 | 0.305 |
| V_s^2 | 0.043 | 0.0436 | 0.495 |
| V_T^2 | 0.384 | 0.0469 | 0.801 |
| V_T | 0.62 | 0.22 | 0.89 |
| % Signal | 11% | 93% | 62% |

Table 3: Voltage measurements and Percent of Power due to Signal

Quick Analysis of Data As we compare the data from Table 2 and Table 3, all the measured values are within the predicted values, and the % signal is within the expected range stated in the Teach Spin manual for Trial 1 (11%).

Summary So we were able to successfully measure the mean-square voltage of the signal plus noise using the 770 and the scope. The weird unit of interest $V/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$, the voltage spectral density, becomes a useful tool to measure noise and delineate the signal from the noise. (9/5/24) Trial 2 clearly shows a smaller noise floor presents a clearer signal defined by the percent of signal power, and vice versa for Trial 3 and a larger sine wave amplitude.

Chapter 15: Signal Recovery Under Noise

Experiment Part 2: Signal Pipeline TM:

BT Noise (A, B, C, or D) \rightarrow SR770

770 Config

- AVERAGE: 16 Exponential mode (for now)
- MEASURE: PSD (Actually VSD but the 770 calls it PSD)
- WINDOW: Uniform for close peaks with similar amplitudes, Flattop for measurement

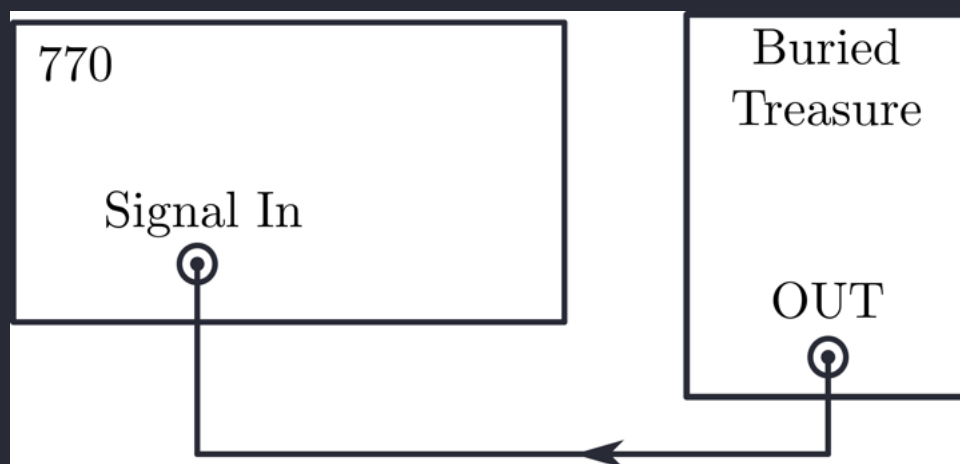


Figure 1.13: Buried Treasure Setup

Notes from Teach Spin Inexact Calculation of

- 770 sorts frequencies into 400 bins of width δf , so any bin with just noise has expected value

$$\langle V_n^2 \rangle = \int S(f) df \rightarrow S \delta f$$

compared to an expected value of the signal (plus some noise) has expected value

$$\langle [V(t) + A \cos(\omega t - \phi)]^2 \rangle = S \delta f + \frac{A^2}{2} = \langle V_P^2 \rangle$$

thus we need signal power in a single bin to be much larger than the STD of noise floor values in the bin.

- To find and N standard deviation detection of the signal with n acquisitions (or Averages) the noise of the bin must be smaller than

$$\frac{A^2}{2} > N \frac{S \delta f}{\sqrt{n}}$$

e.g. $N = 5$ -sigma detection of the signal with $n = 16$ Average.

Procedure

- Turn the Rotary switch to buried signal A and output the signal *directly* to the 770.
- Decrease the Frequency span to the next smaller value and use exponential average to look for a peak that stands up at least 20 dB above the noise floor.

- Repeatedly decrease the span and pan through the full range of the 770 until you find the peak.
- Once the peak is found, measure the peak voltage using the MEASure: Spectrum; Units: Voltz Pk.
- If the peak does not stand out as far, subtract the mean square power per bin (PSD per bin) between the peak V_P and an only-noise bin V_n i.e.

$$\frac{A^2}{2} = \langle V_P^2 \rangle - \langle V_n^2 \rangle$$

| BT Signal | A (freq) | V_P (mV) |
|-----------|-----------|----------|
| A | 2.875 kHz | 15.62 |
| B | 70.26 kHz | 6.466 |
| C | 33.57 kHz | 1.46 |

Table 4: Measured Frequency and Peak Voltage for BT Signal



Figure 1.14: 770 View for BT Signal C

Summary From Fig. 1.14 We had to pan through the full range of the 770 at $100/2^6 = 1.5625$ kHz to find the peak at 33.57 kHz. This means that we had to decrease the span 6 times to find the peak, and comb through each 1.5 kHz range and wait for the 770 to acquire n average each time. Since the 770 cannot analyze the full span at small frequency ranges all at once, we had to manually pan through the full range for each iteration. Finally, we chose not to look for Signal D as it was only limited by the time it would have taken to pan through the full range of the 770 at even smaller frequency ranges and larger averaging.

2 AM Radio Reception

2.1 Chapter 3: Modulated Waveforms - Amplitude Modulation

Notes AM Modulation in a Nutshell:

A high frequency “carrier” wave f_c transports a lower frequency “program” content f_p , i.e., for a simple sinusoidal carrier wave the modulated signal is given by

$$V(t) = [A(1 + \alpha \cos(2\pi f_p t))] \cos(2\pi f_c t)$$

where $\alpha < 1$ is the modulation index. We can pretend that $[] = A()$ is equivalent to the amplitude of the modulated waveform, so this makes the amplitude vary over time between $A(1 - \alpha)$ and $A(1 + \alpha)$. With some trig identities, we can rewrite this as

$$V(t) = A \cos(2\pi f_c t) + \frac{A\alpha}{2} \cos(2\pi(f_c + f_p)t) + \frac{A\alpha}{2} \cos(2\pi(f_c - f_p)t)$$

Thus the sum of three sinusoidal waves with frequencies f_c , $f_c + f_p$, and $f_c - f_p$ —i.e., the information content of an AM signal is contained within the sidebands of the carrier wave in the frequency domain.

Exploration

- Carrier: 770 internal source—50 kHz, 1 V → Multiplier module (MULT) input A
- Program: 33500B—2 kHz, 5 V → SUMMER module input B
- DC VOLTAGE module 5 V → SUMMER input A
- SUMMER output → MULT input B
- MULT output → scope & 770

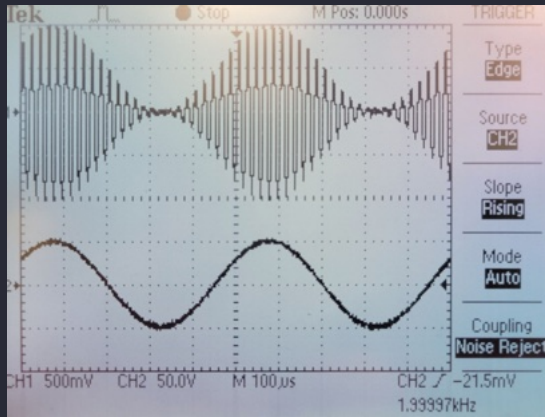


Figure 2.1: Scope (left) with bottom program content and 770 (right) view of AM Modulation of a 50 kHz carrier wave with a 2 kHz program wave.

In Figure 2.1, we see the scope and 770 view of the AM modulation of a 50 kHz carrier wave with a 2 kHz program wave. The scope view shows familiar looking AM modulated waveform, while the 770 clearly shows the carrier frequency at the center and the two sidebands which dictate the frequency of the program content.

Changing content of the two waves

- Increase frequency of program content:
 - The sidebands move further away from the carrier frequency just as the theory predicts $f_c \pm f_p$.

- Change carrier frequency:
 - Moves the 3 peak structure left or right (low freq and high freq respectively) on the 770 (Figure 2.2).
 - The envelope of the modulated waveform remains the same, but the inside oscillations increase as f_c increases.



Figure 2.2: Increasing (right) and decreasing (left) program frequency.

- Program amplitude:
 - Increasing the program amplitude increases the amplitude of the sidebands independent of the carrier amplitude (Fig. 2.3).



Figure 2.3: Decreasing program amplitude.

- Carrier amplitude:
 - Increasing the carrier amplitude increases the amplitude of the carrier wave independent of the program amplitude (Fig. 2.4).



Figure 2.4: Increasing (right) and decreasing (left) carrier frequency.

- Program content to square wave:
 - There are multiple sidebands at odd multiples of the program frequency.

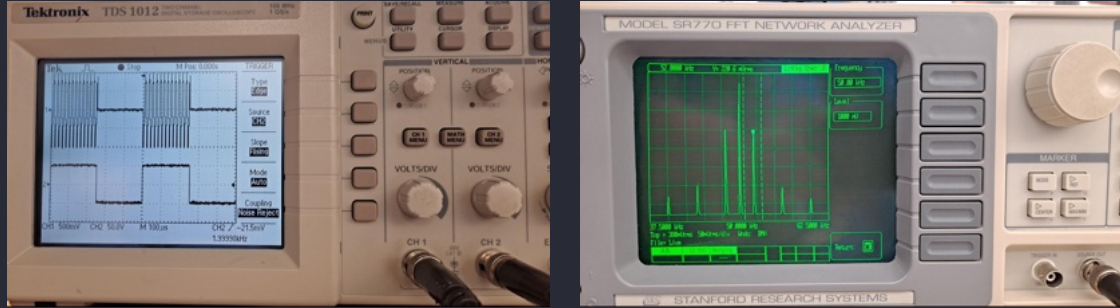


Figure 2.5: Scope (left) with program content in the bottom and 770 (right) view of AM Modulation of a 50 kHz carrier wave with a 2 kHz square wave program wave.

Why $\alpha < 1$? The multiplier outputs a scaled product of the two input signals

$$V_{\text{out}} = \frac{V_A V_B}{10}$$

for inputs with voltage ± 10 V, and frequency lower than 1 MHz. Thus for 5 V DC input from the summer with the program signal gives

$$\begin{aligned} V_{\text{out}} &= (5V + P \cos(2\pi f_p t))(A \cos(2\pi f_c t))/10 \\ &= \frac{5A}{10} V \left(1 + \frac{P}{5V} \cos(2\pi f_p t) \right) \cos(2\pi f_c t) \end{aligned}$$

So the waveform has a modulation index $\alpha = \frac{P}{5V}$. In our first case (Fig. 2.1), $P = 5V$ so $\alpha = 1$. Here the scope clearly shows the two distinct frequencies that make up the AM waveform—i.e., the envelope matches the program content shown simultaneously below, and the carrier frequency is resolved in the small oscillations within the envelope.

When we increase $\alpha \rightarrow 2$ (Fig. ref here), the program content is overmodulated or *distorted* which makes it hard to extract out the program content from the modulated waveform.

Chapter 11: AM Radio Reception

Notes

- Since AM radio signals are roughly 540-1600 kHz, i.e., 500-200 m wavelength, the EM waves are pretty uniform and can be received by our simple electrical wire antenna connected to an LC-resonant circuit.
- The LC-resonant slightly tunes the frequency range into a narrow band of frequencies, which can be changed by adjusting the number of inductors we put in series (Fig. 2.5).
- Downconversion: Before we narrow the frequency search range, we can first use downconversion to bring the high frequency AM signals to a lower frequency range provided by the High-Frequency (HF) Mixer module.
 - Local-oscillator (LO) source: Using the 33500B, we set the LO frequency so that the difference between the LO and the AM signal is in the range of our 770 (100 kHz). e.g., for target radio station (RF) 850 kHz, setting the LO to 770 or 930 kHz will output a 80 kHz difference frequency from the HF mixer. It will also output and sum & difference frequencies from other radio stations which we must filter with the IF output.

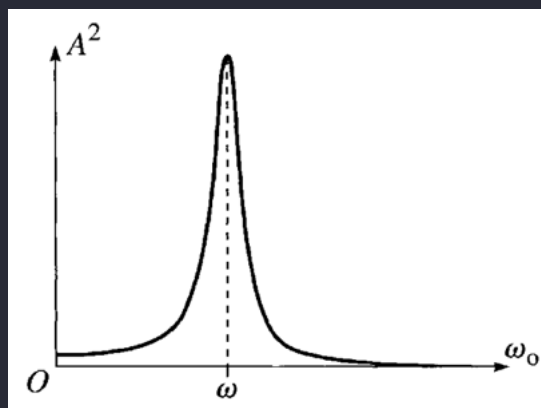


Figure 2.6: Resonant frequency of RLC circuit (Taylor, Classical Mechanics). Our circuit has a broad resonance (rather than sharp) which will receive a band full of AM stations.

- IF Filter: To create a fixed pass band that only allows the a narrow range of difference frequencies to pass through.
- De-modulation: Turning AM signal into “pure” program content for the Audio Amp. & Speak module.
 - An AM signal waveform has a carrier f_c carrying the program content f_p in the sidebands $f_c \pm f_p$.
 - Tuning the LO frequency to f_c will create a zero difference (or “beat”) frequency thus the side bands of the IF are exactly the frequencies of the program content. e.g. for 850 kHz RF, set LO to 850 kHz and the Filter Freq. to 1 kHz.
- Heterodyne/Heterodyning: Shifting one frequency range to another
 - Both Down-conversion and demodulating in this case are examples of heterodyning.



Figure 2.7: Experimental setup for AM radio reception.

Experiment: Finding Radio Stations

- First note a near by radio station we can pick up from St. Louis ([Radio Station List](#)). e.g. KFUP $f_{RF} = 850$ kHz.
- Set three inductors in series on the radio antenna circuit (more inductors in series add more inductance and decrease the resonant frequency).
- Radio antenna circuit OUPUT \rightarrow Wideband Amp $1 \times 1 \times 10$ (10x) or until the signal is visible on the scope
- Wideband Amp OUTPUT \rightarrow HF Mixer INPUT RF & scope

- 33500B 1 V and Freq. 770 kHz (80 kHz difference freq.) OUTPUT → HF Mixer (Down-conversion) INPUT LO
- IF OUT → Filter Module 80 kHz; 8 Gain; Band-pass
- Filter OUT → Power Audio Amp. (Adjust gain until you hear noise or signal) & 770 (LOG magnitude, MEASure Spectrum, and Averaging 16 to reduce noise and to have a fast response to the signal) and and note the visualized signal
- Power Audio Amp. OUT → Speaker Module
- Tune the LO frequency to get a strong signal using multiple difference frequency combinations, i.e., For 850 kHz RF, set LO to 930 kHz.
- De-modulate the signal by tuning the LO frequency *exactly* to the Radio station frequency (carrier freq), i.e., the zero beat frequency—e.g. For 850 kHz (KFUO) Radio Station, tune the LO to 850 kHz, the Filter Freq. to 1 or 3 kHz and decrease $Q \rightarrow 0.71$

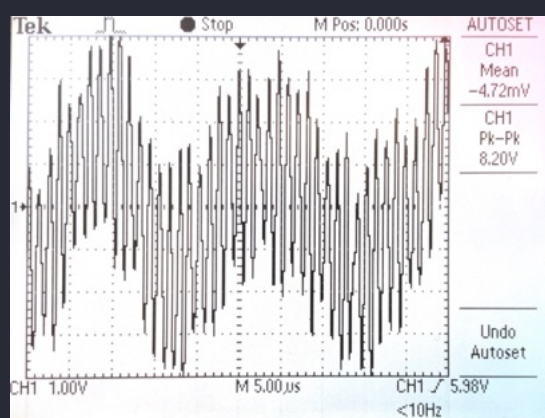


Figure 2.8: TDS 1012 oscilloscope view



Figure 2.9: SR770 FFT Network Analyzer view

Observations Fig. 2.8 and 2.9 show the oscilloscope and 770 view of the AM radio signal from KFUO 850 kHz

- In the down-conversion step, there is still mostly noise output (and some semblance of program content) from the speaker due to the wide band of the Filter module and the program content being downconverted to the wrong frequency of the original audio signal from the source.
- There are two choices for each difference frequency—e.g. $LO = RF \pm 80$ kHz.

- Changing the LO frequency moves the large amplitude carrier frequency (and its program content) to the or right on the 770 i.e. the target RF frequency will be downconverted to a lower frequency $f_c = f_{RF} - f_{LO} = 850 - 800 = 50$ kHz as shown in Fig. 2.10.



Figure 2.10: Increasing LO frequency.

- Thus de-modulating the signal by tuning the LO frequency to the carrier frequency $f_c = f_{RF} - f_{LO} = 0$ will create a zero beat frequency and the sidebands of the IF will be the program content— i.e. an original audio signal (program content) f_p from the source station is now correctly down-converted by the HF Mixer on the 770 as shown in Fig. 2.11. Furthermore, when a speaker is



Figure 2.11: De-modulated signal at span of program content. The speaker outputs a sound of a piano and the 770 captures the frequency spectrum of the piano sound (with some noise).



Figure 2.12: De-modulated signal in full span view

talking on the radio station, the 770 captures the frequency spectrum of the human voice in real time showing the resonant frequencies of the human voice (Fig. 2.13).

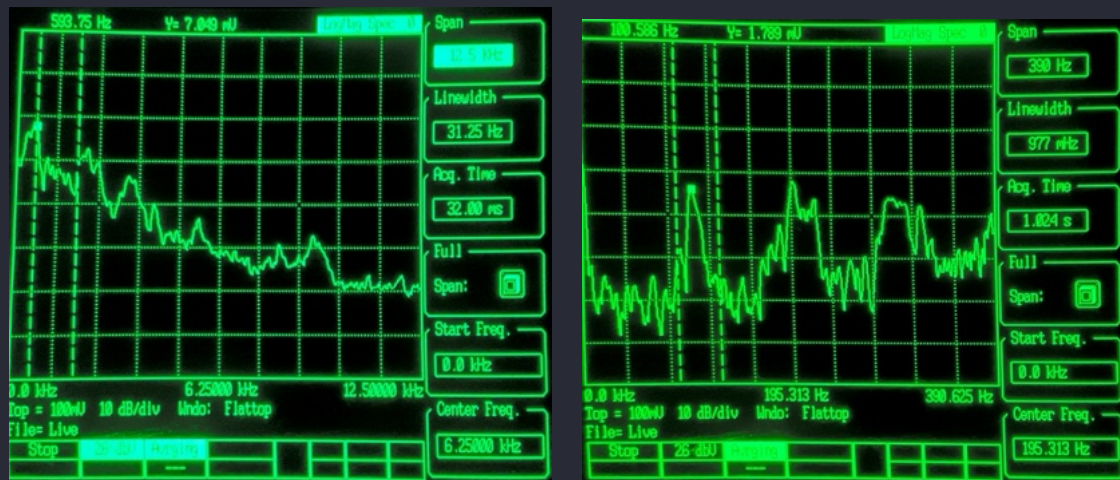


Figure 2.13: Snapshot of De-modulated signal of a human radio voice. 12 kHz span (left) shows high resonant frequencies (Formant) and 390 kHz span (right) shows the lower fundamental frequency (this is a different snapshot of the Radio voice since we can't capture two frequency ranges simultaneously)

The 770 shows, in addition to the fundamental frequency of the human voice, there are high resonant frequencies present in certain vowels (formants); e.g. we can see formants $F_1 = 500$ Hz (fundamental frequency), $F_2 = 2.13$ kHz, $F_3 = 3.375$ kHz in Fig. 2.13 which are characteristic of the human voice.

Source: "Static measurements of vowel formant frequencies and bandwidths: A review", Raymond D. Kent, Houri Vorperian ([link](#))

doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcomdis.2018.05.004>

Summary

- AM Modulation: Heterodying (Down-conversion and demodulation) can be used to analyze high frequency AM signals at low frequency ranges and extract the program content of a radio station.
- Further applications: Formants to identify human speech and other audio signals (first step in speech recognition).

Source: "Formant estimation for speech recognition", L. Welling, H. Ney (1998) [link](#)

doi: <https://doi.org/10.1109/89.650308>

3 The Fluxgate Magnetometer

Chapter 13: Understanding the Fluxgate Magnetometer

Notes

- Teachspin Fluxgate Magnetometer Module:
 - Fluxgate Sensor:
 - Double Solenoid: Two electrically separate wires are wound and stored in a tube for the fluxgate sensor to fit in. This is so we can have up to two independently added magnetic fields.

- * Solenoid pitch = 2.54 mm, and the expected magnetic field inside the Solenoid is given by

$$B_{\text{ext}} = 2\mu_0 ni$$

where i is the current through a solenoid, 2 accounts for the doubled layer, and the turn density is

$$n = 1 \text{ turn} / (0.00254 \text{ m}) = 394 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

From this, the magnitude of the external magnetic field given a current i is

$$\frac{B_{\text{ext}}}{i} = 2 \cdot (4\pi 10^{-7} \text{ Tm/A}) 394 \text{ m} = 990 \mu\text{T/A}$$

- Modeling Output: Calibrating the Solenoid
 - * For simple models the $2f$ -component of the field is linear $A = SB_{\text{ext}}$, but we are actually measuring the magnitude of the spectral component

$$M = S|B_{\text{ext}}|$$

- * The geometry of the vector components require us to take a phaser sum which gives us the square magnitude of the measured field

$$M^s = S^2 \left[\left(B_{\text{ext}} + \frac{A_{\text{para}}}{S} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{A_{\text{perp}}}{S} \right)^2 \right] = S^2 [(B_{\text{ext}} + a)^2 + b^2]$$

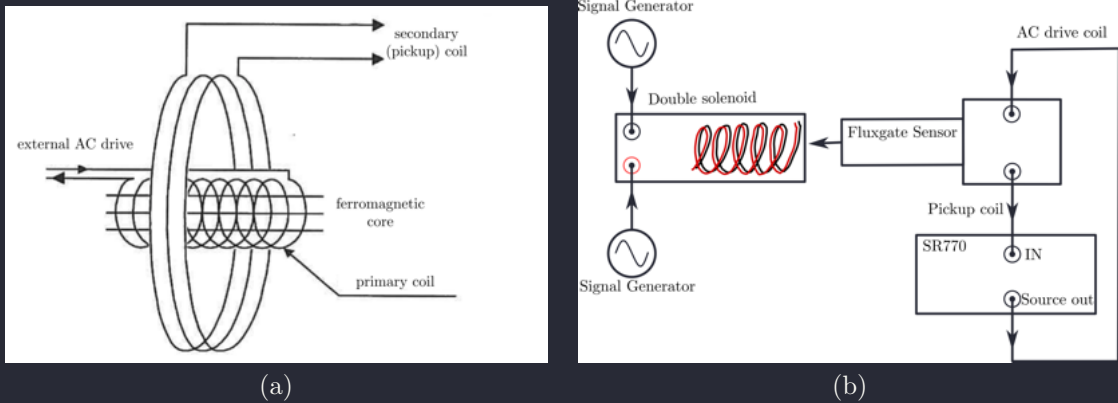


Figure 3.1: (a) Fluxgate Magnetometer sensor components and (b) Fluxgate sensor and double solenoid setup

In this project we will be learning how to use a fluxgate magnetometer in correspondence with the Fourier analysis done by the SSR770. This allows us to measure even the smallest of magnetic fields.

Our understanding is that when displayed on the SSR we will find see the harmonics of the current coming out of the fluxgate. With the first fundamental harmonic we will see current of the driving AC coil, but for the second harmonic, we will see the actual readings due to external fields superimposed upon it. This is similar to the AM modulation except instead of program content we have magnetic field strength data.

Experimental Setup

- SR770 Config:
 - FREQ: 3.125 kHz to view $2f$ and 12.2 Hz for measurement; Center Freq. 2 kHz (second harmonic)
 - MEASure: Spectrum, Flattop Window
 - Average: 16, Exponential
 - SOURCE OUT: 1 kHz 1 V

Procedure

- 770: 1 kHz 1 V Sine SOURCE OUT \rightarrow Power Audio Amp. module and adjust gain to 6 V (monitor output with splitter to scope)
- Power Audio Amp. output \rightarrow Fluxgate Primary (AC drive) coil
- Secondary (pick-up) coil \rightarrow SR770 input
- Rotate the sensor to find the maximum signal
- Measure second harmonic $2f$ component of the frequency spectrum
- Add 2.5 V DC current (from 33500 B) to Solenoid A and measure the changes in the $2f$ component
 - NOTE: Use 50 Ohm Terminator so the measured output voltage is exactly the displayed voltage due to the internal 50 Ohm impedance of the 33500B
- 770 config change: FREQ SPAN 12.2 Hz
- Solenoid A: Replace DC current with AC ($f_A = 5$ Hz 1 V Sine wave from 33500B) and find the $2f \pm f_A$ components
- Solenoid B: Add a second AC drive ($f_B = 2.5$ Hz 0.5 V Sine wave from second 33500 B) and measure the four side band frequencies $2f \pm f_A, 2f \pm f_B$



Figure 3.2: Frequency data from the fluxgate magnetometer onto the SR770



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.3: (a) SR770 view of fluxgate sensor with one external AC magnetic field (b) two external AC magnetic fields applied to double solenoid

Observations From these we are able to see that the 2nd harmonic can be measured via their Voltage Spectral Density. After calibration we are able to measure the magnetic field that it is detecting. We can then, as in the 2nd image, zoom into the further harmonics to see even finer and finer levels of specificity with the fluxgate. At this small a range of frequency we are able to measure even at the level of μ Teslas, Able to detect the effects of the earths magnetic field. We even noticed that the nearby NMR machine was able to be seen by our setup.