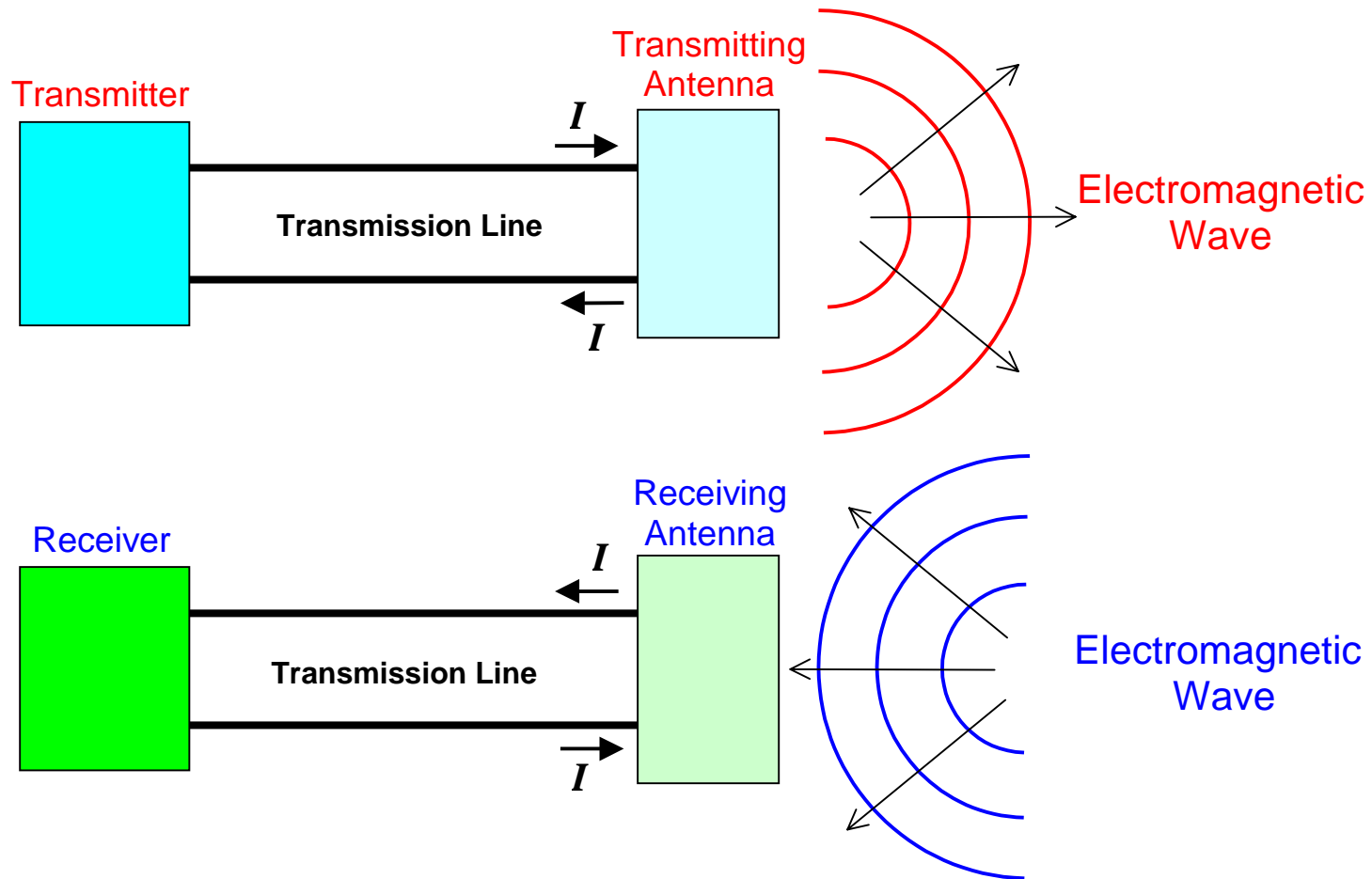
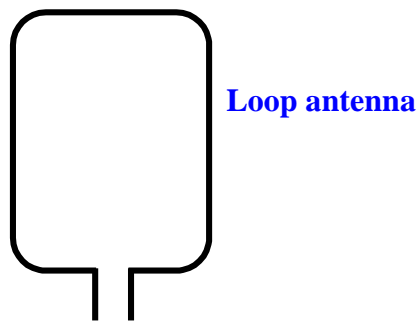
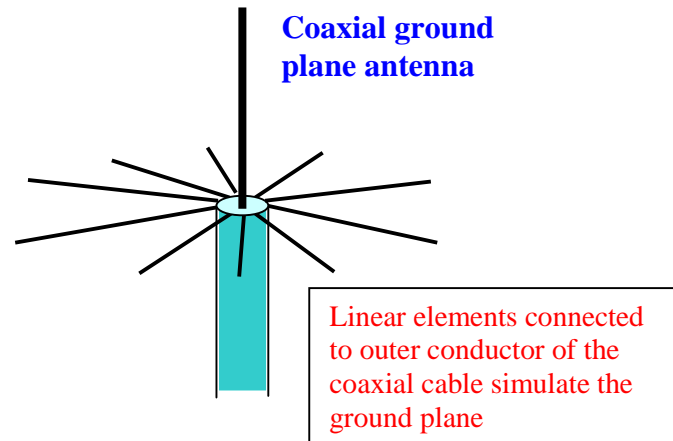
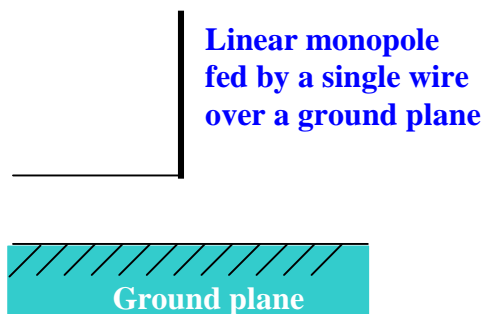
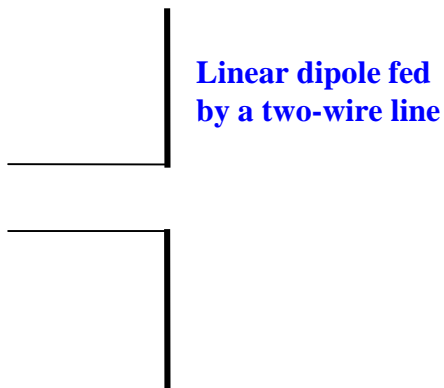


Antennas

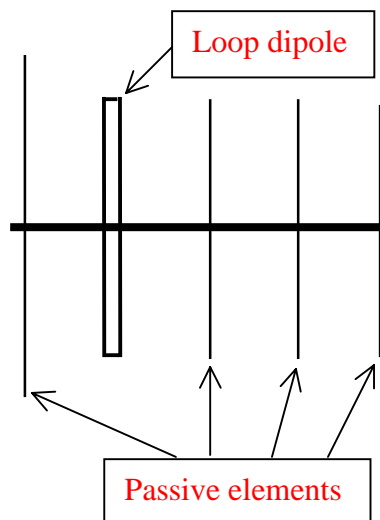


Antennas are **transducers** that transfer electromagnetic energy between a transmission line and free space.

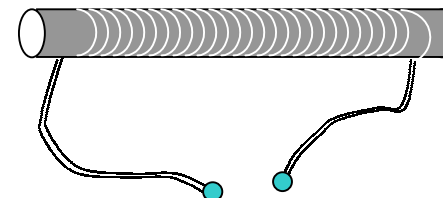
Here are a few examples of common antennas:



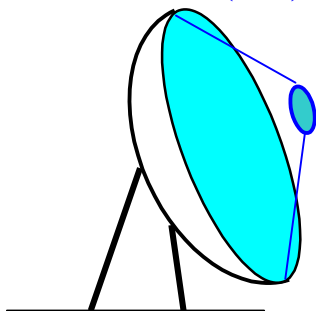
Uda-Yagi dipole array



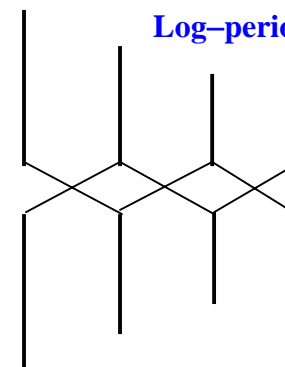
Multiple loop antenna wound around a ferrite core



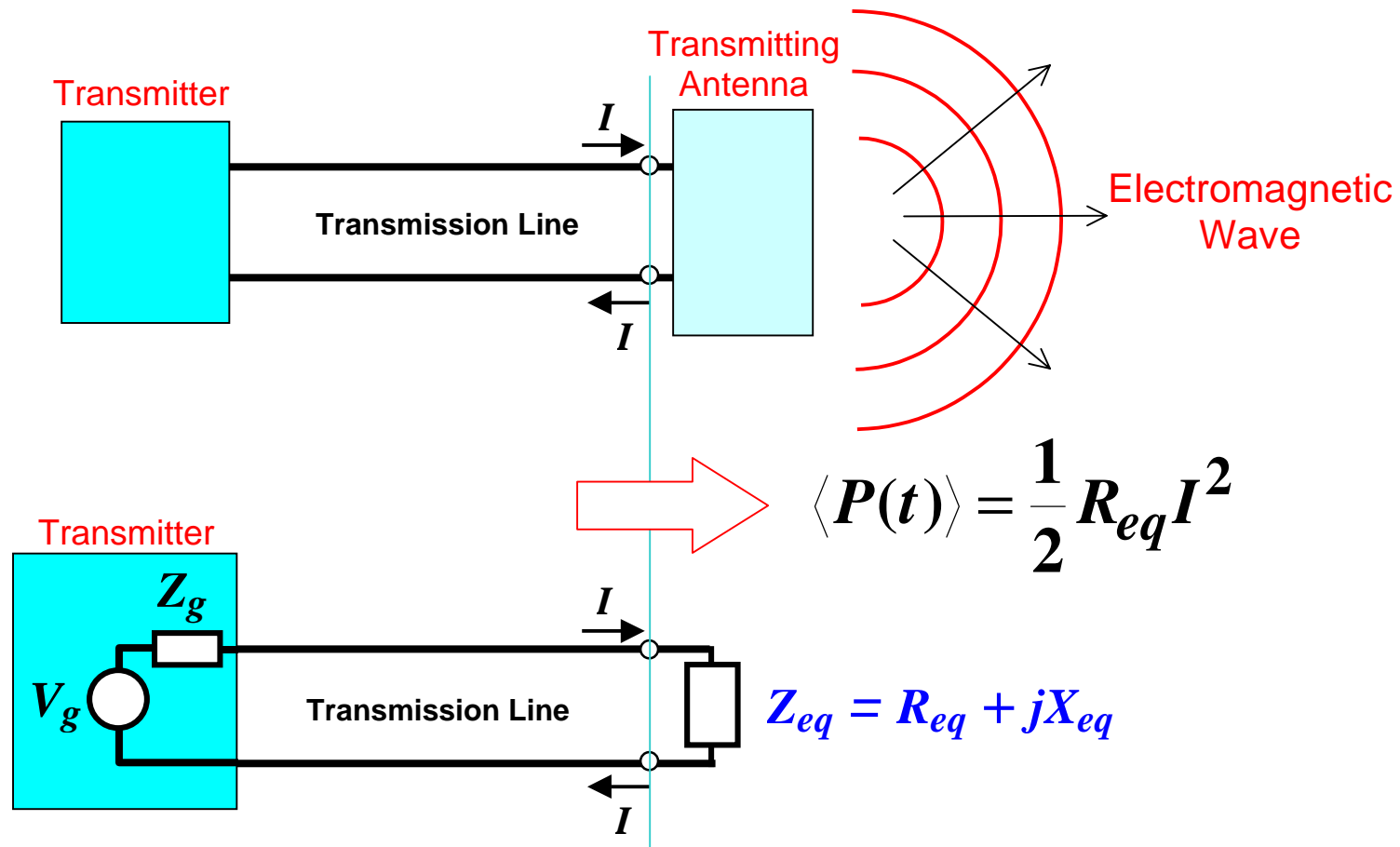
Parabolic (dish) antenna



Log-periodic array

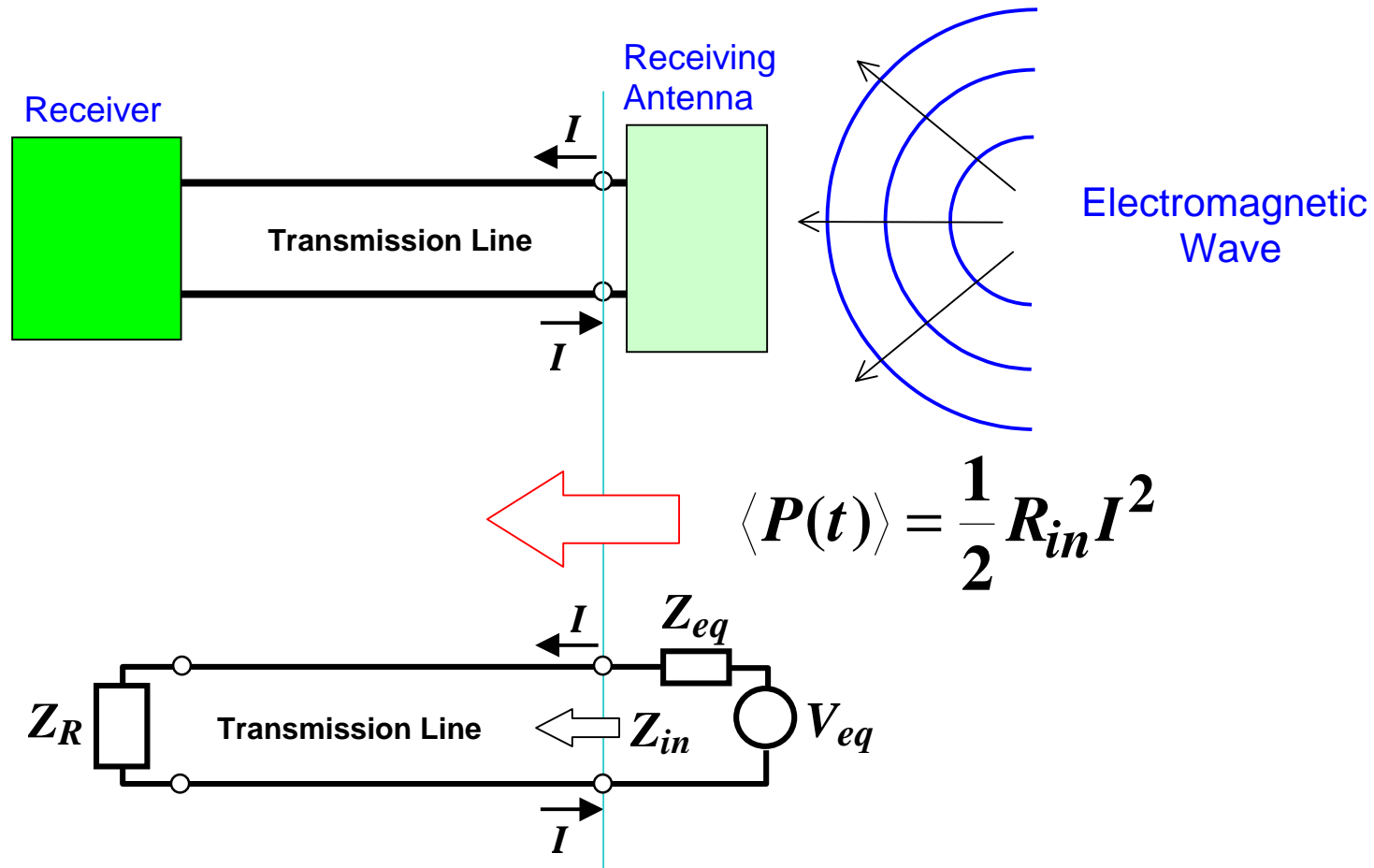


From a **circuit** point of view, a **transmitting antenna** behaves like an **equivalent impedance** that dissipates the power transmitted



The **transmitter** is equivalent to a **generator**.

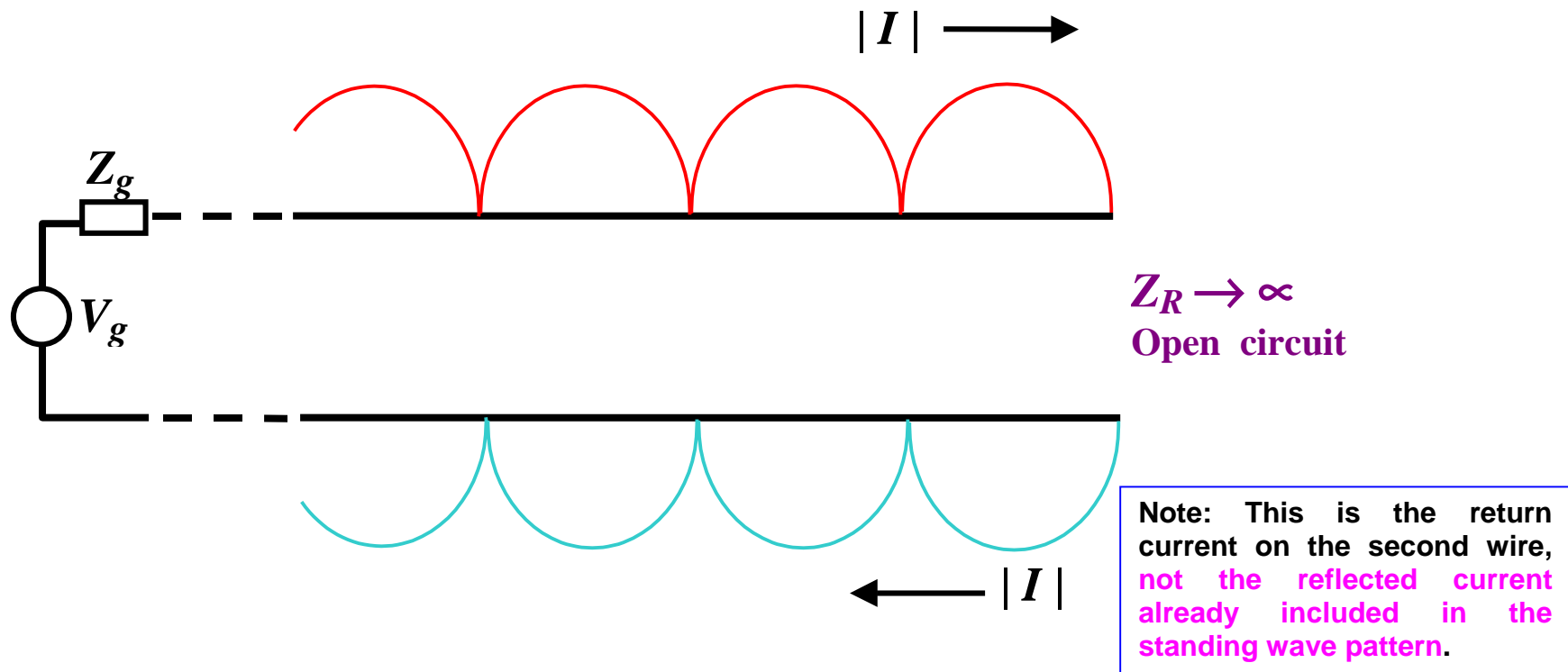
A **receiving antenna** behaves like a **generator** with an internal impedance corresponding to the antenna equivalent impedance.



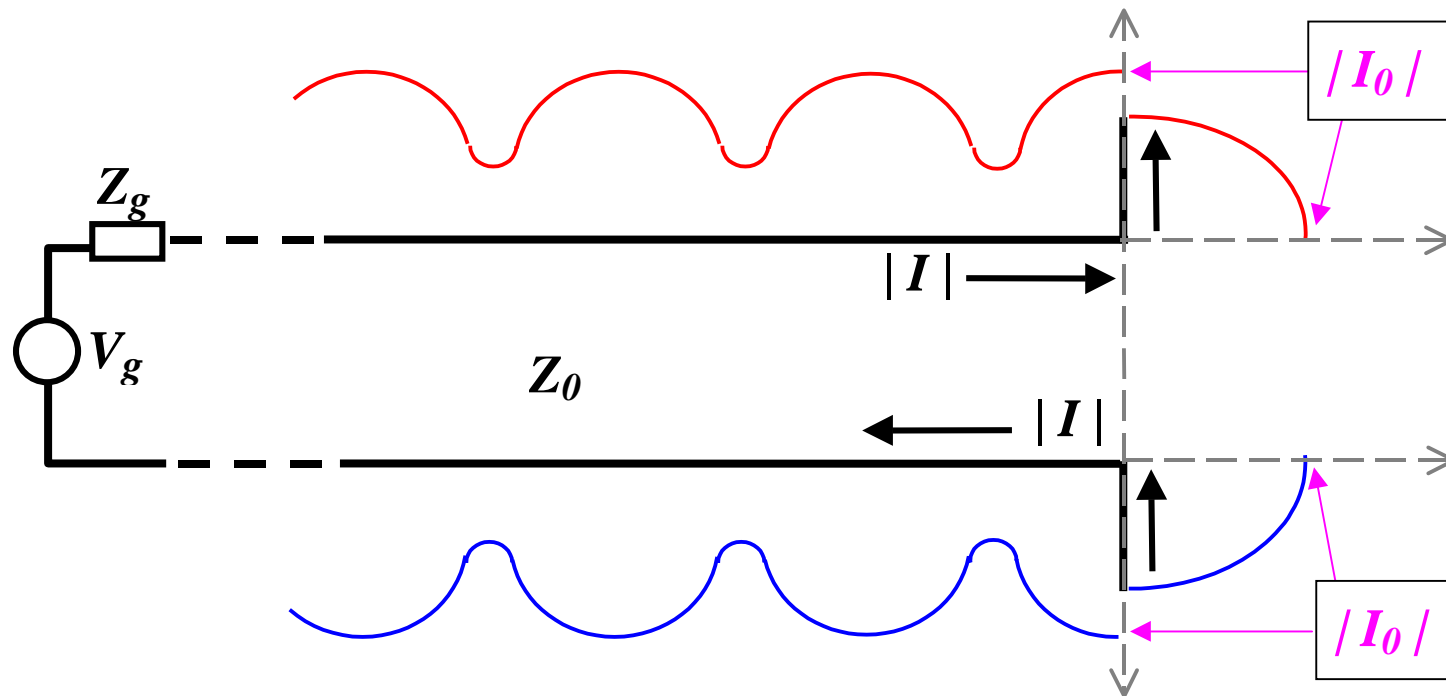
The **receiver** represents the **load impedance** that dissipates the time average power generated by the receiving antenna.

Antennas are in general **reciprocal** devices, which can be used both as **transmitting** and as **receiving** elements. This is how the antennas on cellular phones and walkie-talkies operate.

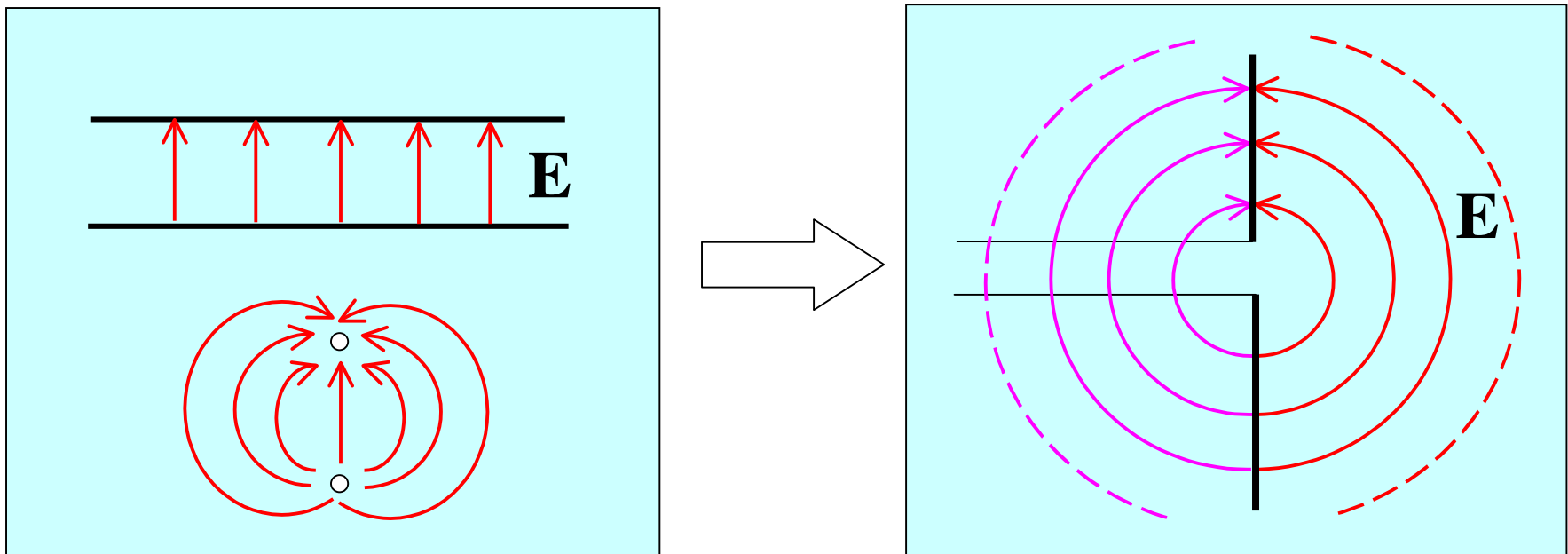
The basic principle of operation of an antenna is easily understood starting from a two-wire **transmission line**, terminated by an **open circuit**.



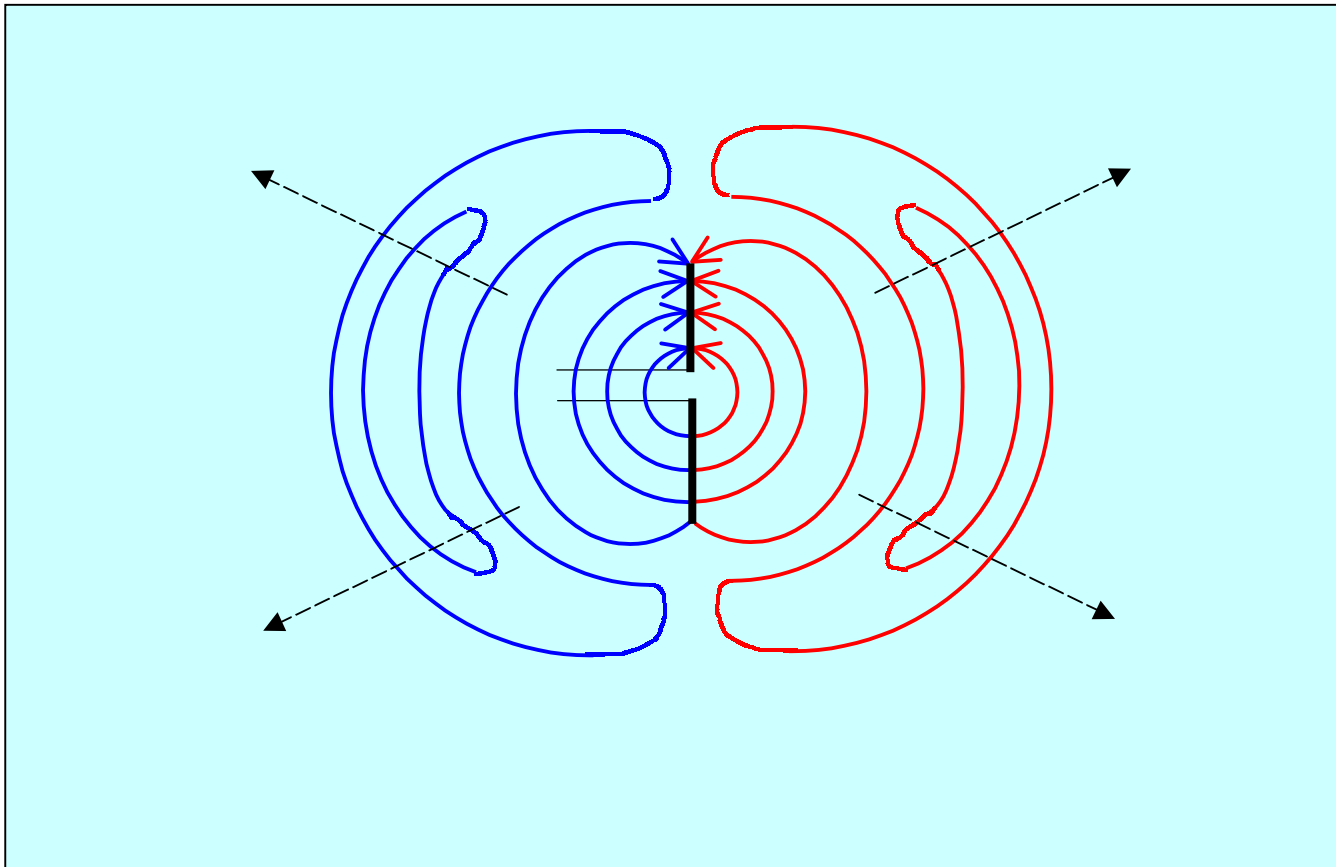
Imagine to **bend** the end of the transmission line, forming a **dipole antenna**. Because of the change in geometry, there is now an **abrupt change** in the **characteristic impedance** at the transition point, where the current is still continuous. The dipole leaks electromagnetic energy into the surrounding space, therefore it reflects less power than the original open circuit \Rightarrow **the standing wave pattern on the transmission line is modified**



In the space surrounding the dipole we have an electric field. At **zero frequency (d.c. bias)**, fixed electrostatic field lines connect the metal elements of the antenna, with **circular symmetry**.



At **higher frequency**, the current oscillates in the wires and the field emanating from the dipole changes periodically. **The field lines propagate away from the dipole and form closed loops.**



The **electromagnetic field** emitted by an **antenna** obeys Maxwell's equations

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -j\omega\mu\vec{H}$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J} + j\omega\epsilon\vec{E}$$

Under the assumption of **uniform isotropic medium** we have the wave equation:

$$\nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{E} = -j\omega\mu \nabla \times \vec{H} = -j\omega\mu\vec{J} + \omega^2\mu\epsilon\vec{E}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{H} &= \nabla \times \vec{J} + j\omega\epsilon \nabla \times \vec{E} \\ &= \nabla \times \vec{J} + \omega^2\mu\epsilon\vec{H} \end{aligned}$$

Note that in the regions with electrical charges ρ

$$\nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{E} = \nabla \nabla \cdot \vec{E} - \nabla^2 \vec{E} = \nabla(\rho/\epsilon) - \nabla^2 \vec{E}$$

In general, these wave equations are difficult to solve, because of the presence of the terms with current and charge. It is easier to use the magnetic **vector potential** and the electric **scalar potential**.

The definition of the magnetic vector potential is

$$\vec{\mathbf{B}} = \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}}$$

Note that since the divergence of the curl of a vector is equal to zero we always satisfy the zero divergence condition

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{\mathbf{B}} = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}}) = 0$$

We have also

$$\nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{E}} = -j\omega\mu\vec{\mathbf{H}} = -j\omega\nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}} \Rightarrow \nabla \times (\vec{\mathbf{E}} + j\omega\vec{\mathbf{A}}) = 0$$

We define the **scalar potential** ϕ first noticing that

$$\nabla \times (\pm \nabla \phi) = \mathbf{0}$$

and then choosing (with sign convention as in electrostatics)

$$\nabla \times (\vec{\mathbf{E}} + j\omega \vec{\mathbf{A}}) = \nabla \times (-\nabla \phi) \Rightarrow \vec{\mathbf{E}} = -j\omega \vec{\mathbf{A}} - \nabla \phi$$

Note that the magnetic **vector potential** is **not uniquely defined**, since for any arbitrary scalar field ψ

$$\vec{\mathbf{B}} = \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}} = \nabla \times (\vec{\mathbf{A}} + \nabla \psi)$$

In order to uniquely define the magnetic vector potential, the standard approach is to use the **Lorenz gauge**

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{\mathbf{A}} + j\omega \mu \epsilon \phi = 0$$

From Maxwell's equations

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \times \vec{B} = \vec{J} + j\omega \epsilon \vec{E}$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu \vec{J} + j\omega \mu \epsilon \vec{E}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{A}) = \mu \vec{J} + j\omega \mu \epsilon (-j\omega \vec{A} - \nabla \phi)$$

From vector calculus

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \dots) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \dots) - \nabla^2 \dots$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{A}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) - \nabla^2 \vec{A} = \mu \vec{J} + \omega^2 \mu \epsilon \vec{A} - j\omega \mu \epsilon \nabla \phi$$

Lorenz Gauge

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = -j\omega \mu \epsilon \phi \Rightarrow \nabla (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) = -j\omega \mu \epsilon \nabla \phi$$

Finally, the **wave equation** for the magnetic **vector potential** is

$$\nabla^2 \vec{A} + \omega^2 \mu \epsilon \vec{A} = \nabla^2 \vec{A} + \beta^2 \vec{A} = -\mu \vec{J}$$

For the electric field we have

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \nabla \cdot (-j\omega \vec{A} - \nabla \phi) = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon}$$

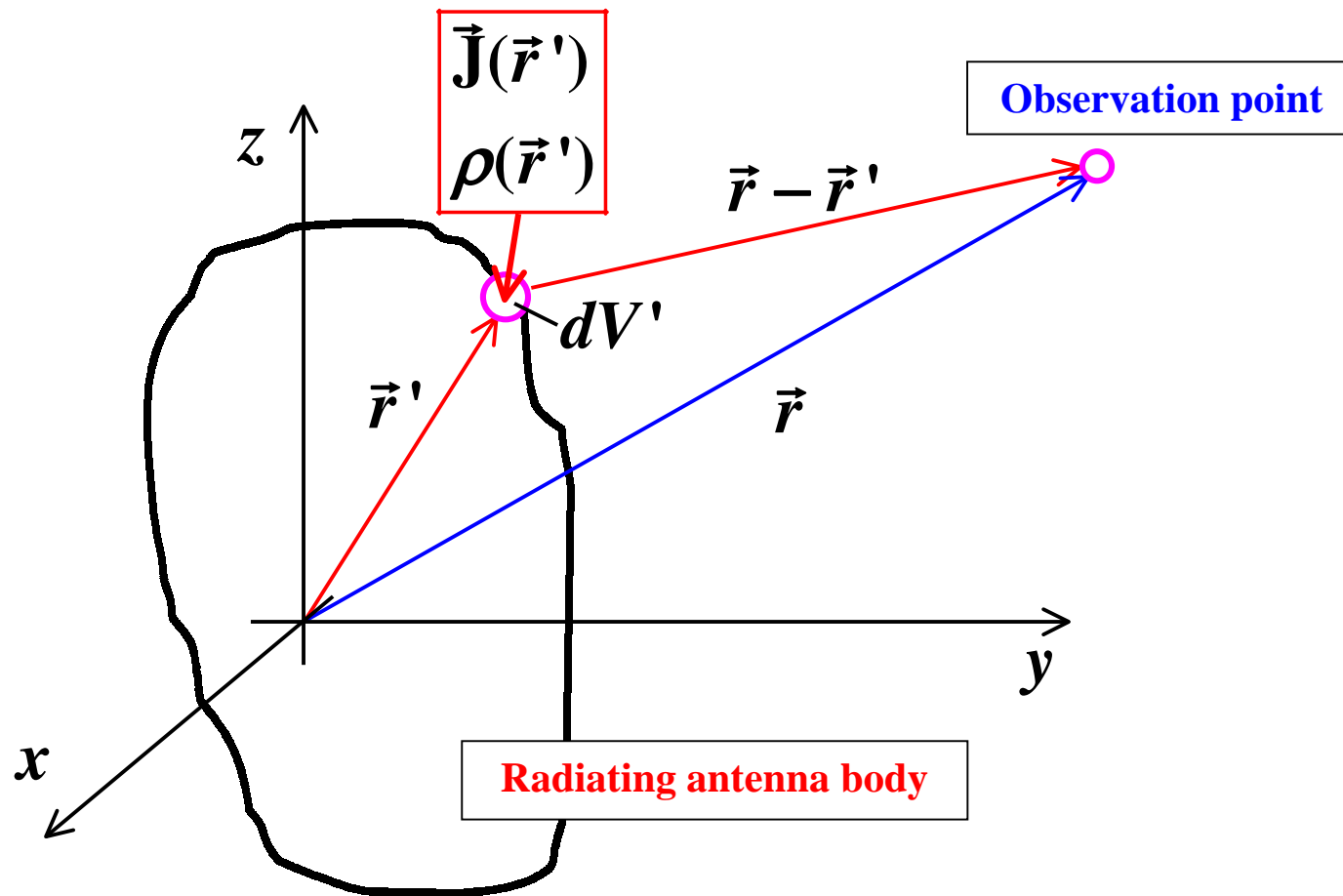
$$\nabla^2 \phi + j\omega \nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \nabla^2 \phi + j\omega(-j\omega \mu \epsilon \phi) = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon}$$

The wave equation for the electric scalar potential is

$$\nabla^2 \phi + \omega^2 \mu \epsilon \phi = \nabla^2 \phi + \beta^2 \phi = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon}$$

The **wave equations** are **inhomogeneous Helmholtz equations**, which apply to regions where **currents** and **charges** are not zero.

We use the following system of coordinates for an antenna body



The general solutions for the wave equations are

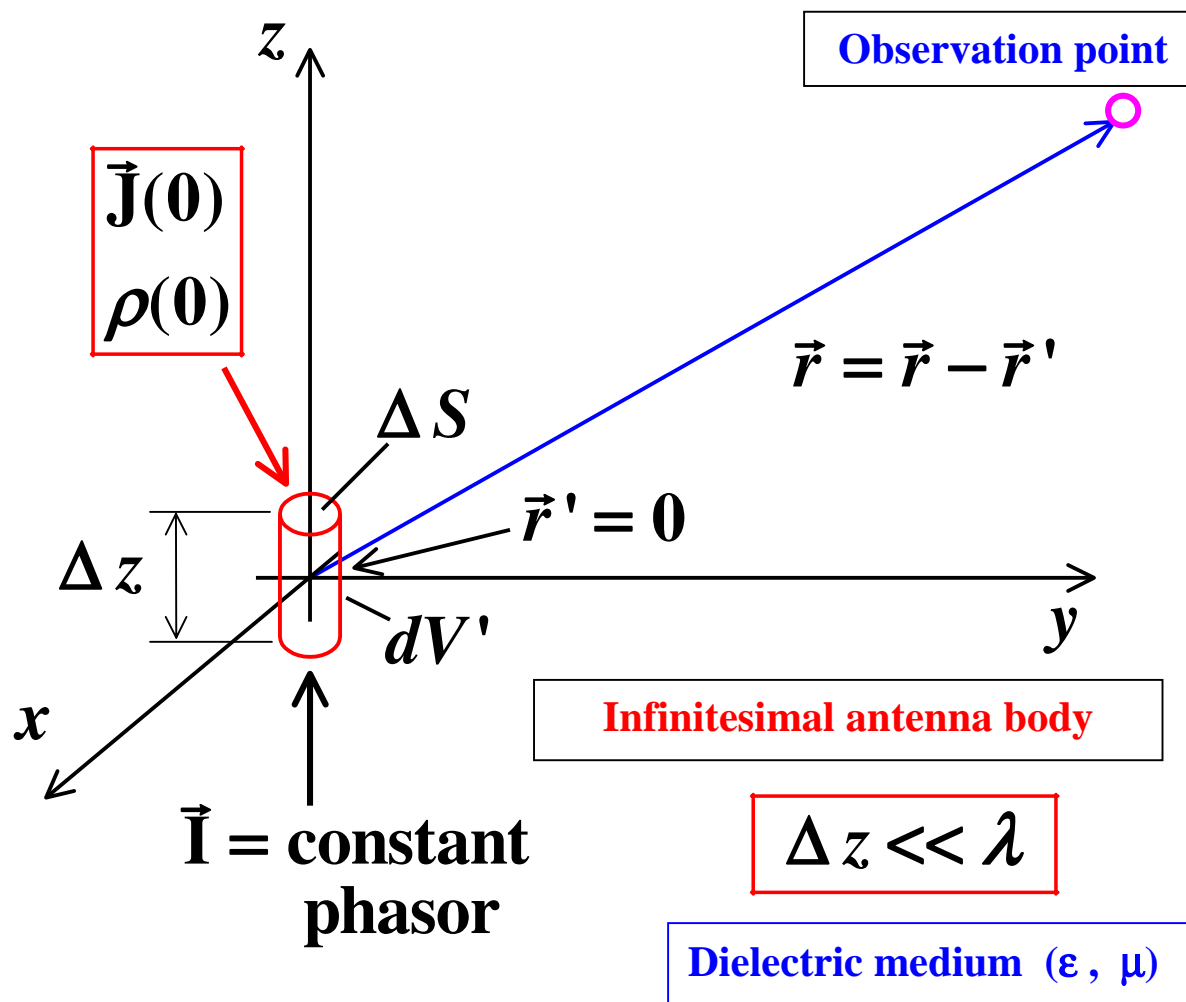
$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu}{4\pi} \iiint_V \frac{\vec{J}(\vec{r}') e^{-j\beta|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|}}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} dV'$$

$$\phi(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \iiint_V \frac{\rho(\vec{r}') e^{-j\beta|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|}}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} dV'$$

The integrals are extended to all points over the antenna body where the sources (**current density**, **charge**) are not zero. The effect of each **volume element** of the antenna is to radiate a **radial wave**

$$\frac{e^{-j\beta|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|}}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|}$$

Infinitesimal Antenna



The **current** flowing in the **infinitesimal antenna** is assumed to be **constant** and oriented along the z -axis

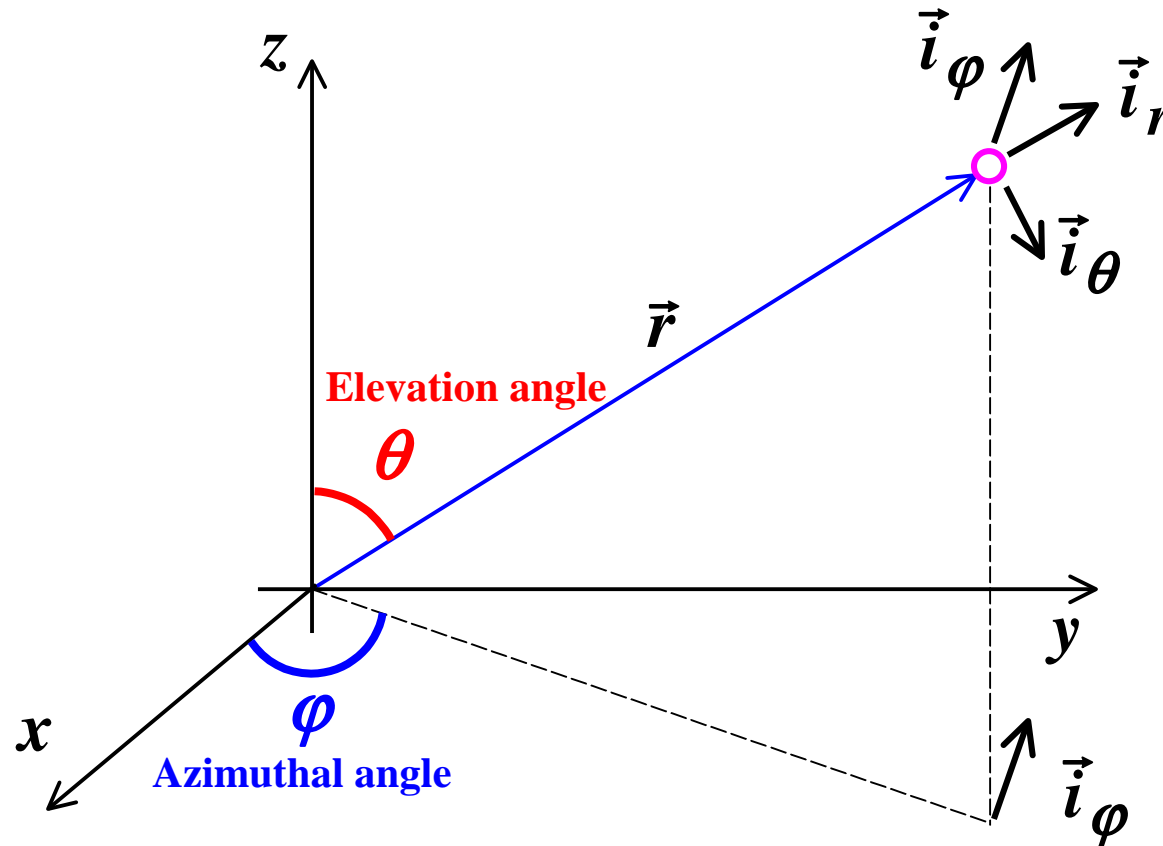
$$\vec{\mathbf{I}} = \Delta S \cdot \vec{\mathbf{J}}(\vec{r}') = \Delta S \cdot \vec{\mathbf{J}}(\mathbf{0}) \quad \Delta V' = \Delta S \cdot \Delta z$$

$$\Delta V' \vec{\mathbf{J}}(\vec{r}') = |\vec{\mathbf{I}}| \Delta z \vec{i}_z$$

The solution of the wave equation for the magnetic vector potential simply becomes the evaluation of the integrand at the origin

$$\vec{\mathbf{A}} = \frac{\mu |\vec{\mathbf{I}}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \vec{i}_z \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \vec{\mathbf{H}} = \frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}} \\ \vec{\mathbf{E}} = \frac{1}{j\omega \epsilon} \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{H}} \end{cases}$$

There is still a major mathematical step left. The **curl** operations must be expressed in terms of **polar coordinates**



In polar coordinates

$$\begin{aligned}
 \nabla \times \vec{A} &= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i}_r & r \vec{i}_\theta & r \sin \theta \vec{i}_\varphi \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} & \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} \\ A_r & r A_\theta & r \sin \theta A_\varphi \end{vmatrix} \\
 &= \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta A_\varphi) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} (A_\theta) \right] \vec{i}_r \\
 &\quad + \frac{1}{r} \left[\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} (A_r) - \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r A_\varphi) \right] \vec{i}_\theta \\
 &\quad + \frac{1}{r} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r A_\theta) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (A_r) \right] \vec{i}_\varphi
 \end{aligned}$$

We had

$$\vec{A} = \frac{\mu |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \vec{i}_z \quad \text{with} \quad \vec{i}_z = \vec{i}_r \cos \theta - \vec{i}_\theta \sin \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \nabla \times \vec{A} = \vec{i}_\varphi \frac{j\mu\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \left(1 + \frac{1}{j\beta r} \right) \sin \theta$$

For the fields we have

$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \times \vec{A} = \vec{i}_\varphi \frac{j\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \left(1 + \frac{1}{j\beta r} \right) \sin \theta$$

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \nabla \times \vec{H} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \times \left[2 \cos \theta \left(\frac{1}{j\beta r} + \frac{1}{(j\beta r)^2} \right) \vec{i}_r + \sin \theta \left(1 + \frac{1}{j\beta r} + \frac{1}{(j\beta r)^2} \right) \vec{i}_\theta \right]$$

The general field expressions can be simplified for observation point at **large distance** from the infinitesimal antenna

$$1 \gg \left| \frac{1}{j\beta r} \right| \gg \left| \frac{1}{(j\beta r)^2} \right| \Rightarrow \beta r = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} r \gg 1$$

At large distance we have the expressions for the **Far Field**

$$\vec{H} \approx \vec{i}_\varphi \frac{j\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin \theta$$

$$\vec{E} \approx \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin \theta$$

} $2\pi r \gg \lambda$

- At **sufficient distance** from the antenna, the **radiated fields** are **perpendicular** to each other and to the **direction of propagation**.
- The **magnetic field** and **electric field** are in **phase** and

$$|\vec{E}| = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} |\vec{H}| = \eta |\vec{H}|$$

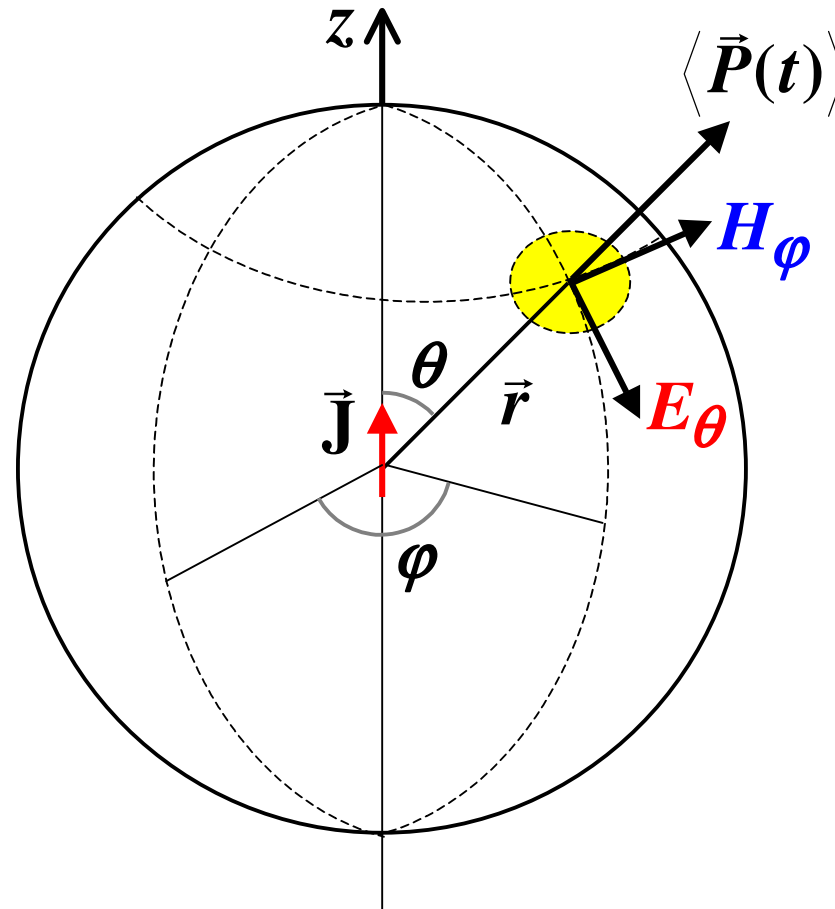
These are also properties of uniform plane waves.

However, there are **significant differences** with respect to a uniform plane wave:

- The surfaces of constant phase are spherical instead of planar, and the wave travels in the radial direction
- The intensities of the fields are inversely proportional to the distance, therefore the field intensities decay while they are constant for a uniform plane wave
- The field intensities are not constant on a given surface of constant phase. The intensity depends on the sine of the elevation angle

The **radiated power density** is

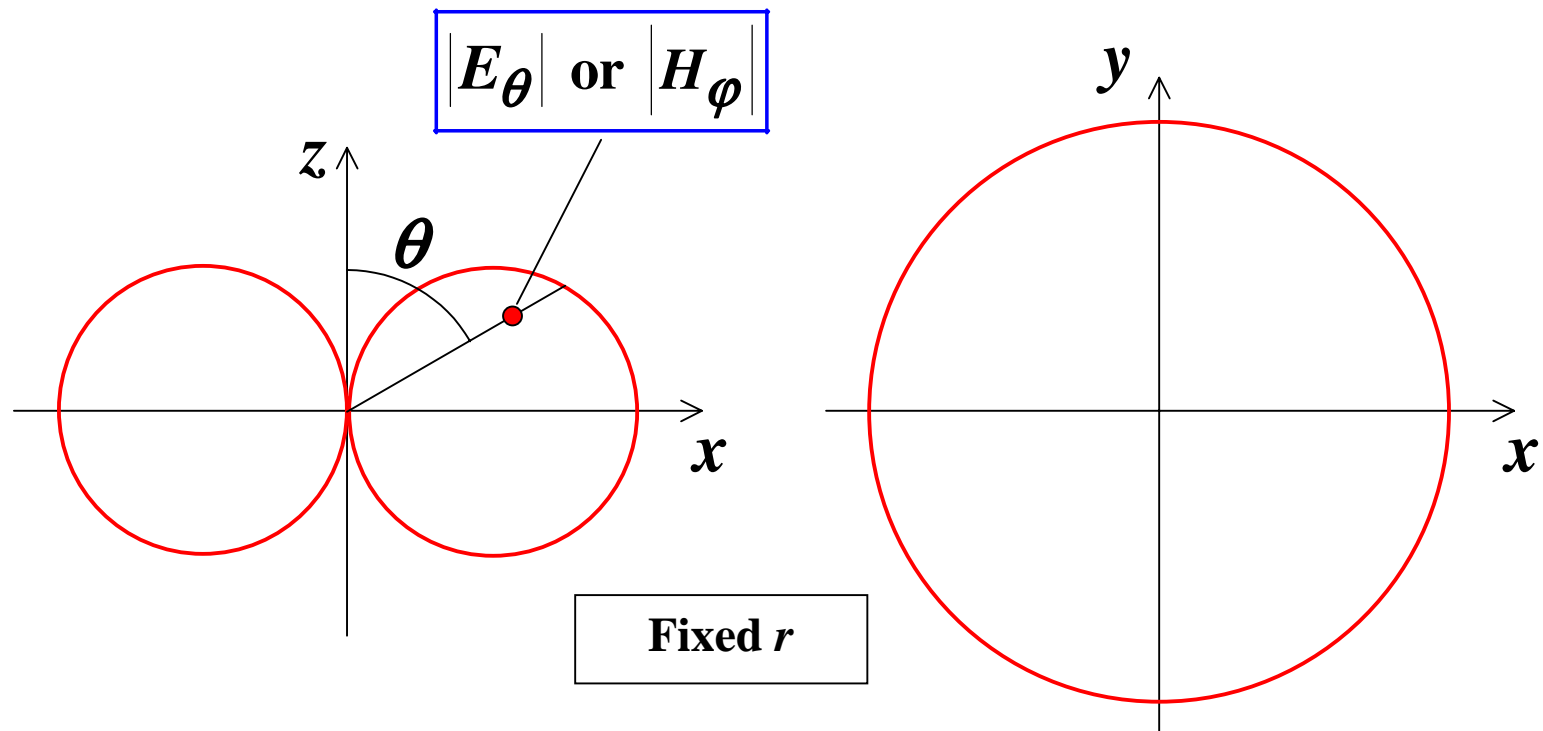
$$\begin{aligned} \langle \vec{P}(t) \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \text{Re} \left\{ \vec{E} \times \vec{H}^* \right\} = \vec{i}_r \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} |H_\varphi|^2 \\ &= \vec{i}_r \frac{\eta}{2} \left(\frac{\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z}{4\pi r} \right)^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{aligned}$$



The spherical wave resembles a plane wave *locally* in a small neighborhood of the point (r, θ, φ) .

Radiation Patterns

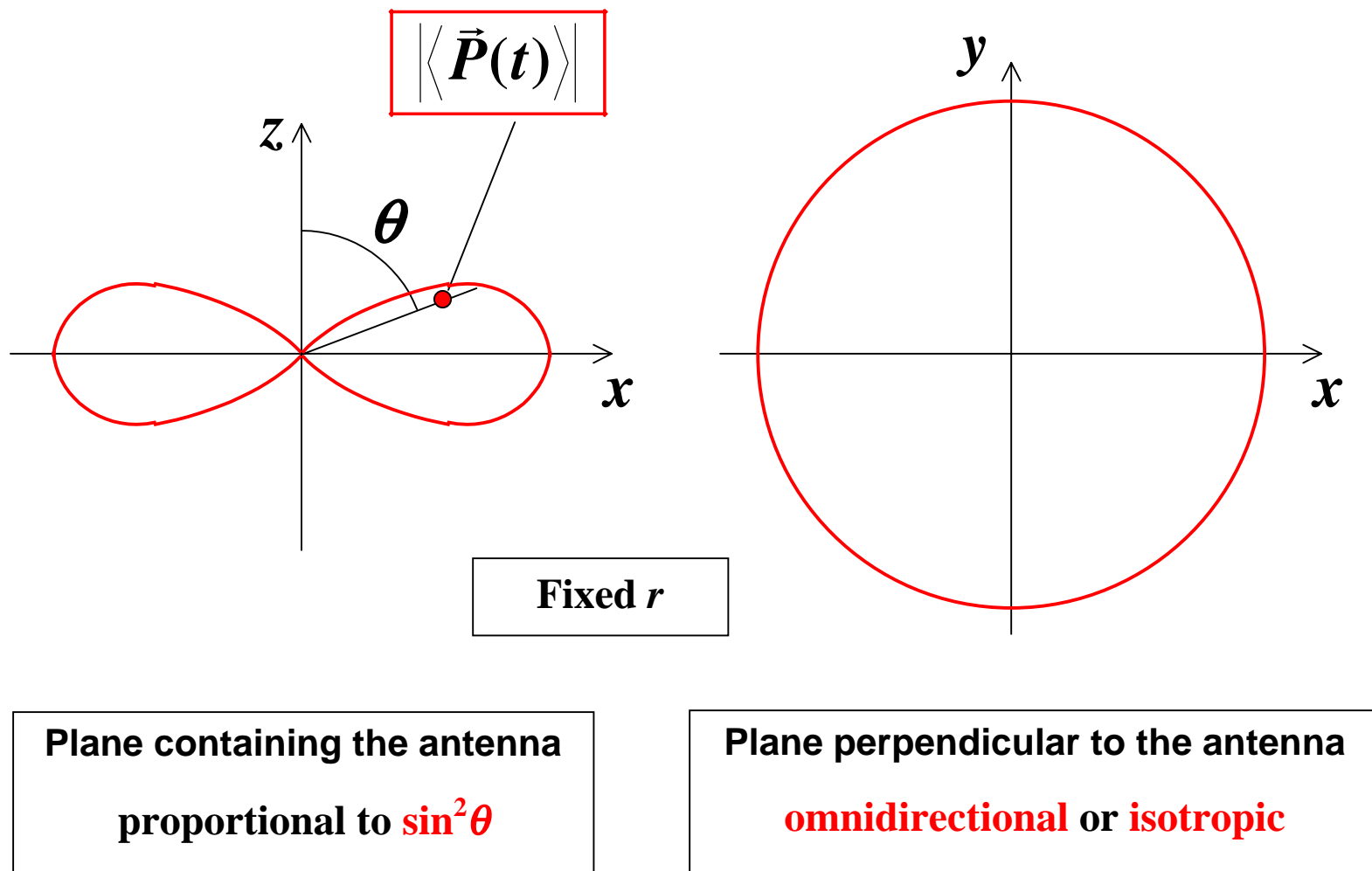
Electric Field and Magnetic Field



Plane containing the antenna
proportional to **$\sin\theta$**

Plane perpendicular to the antenna
omnidirectional or isotropic

Time-average Power Flow (Poynting Vector)

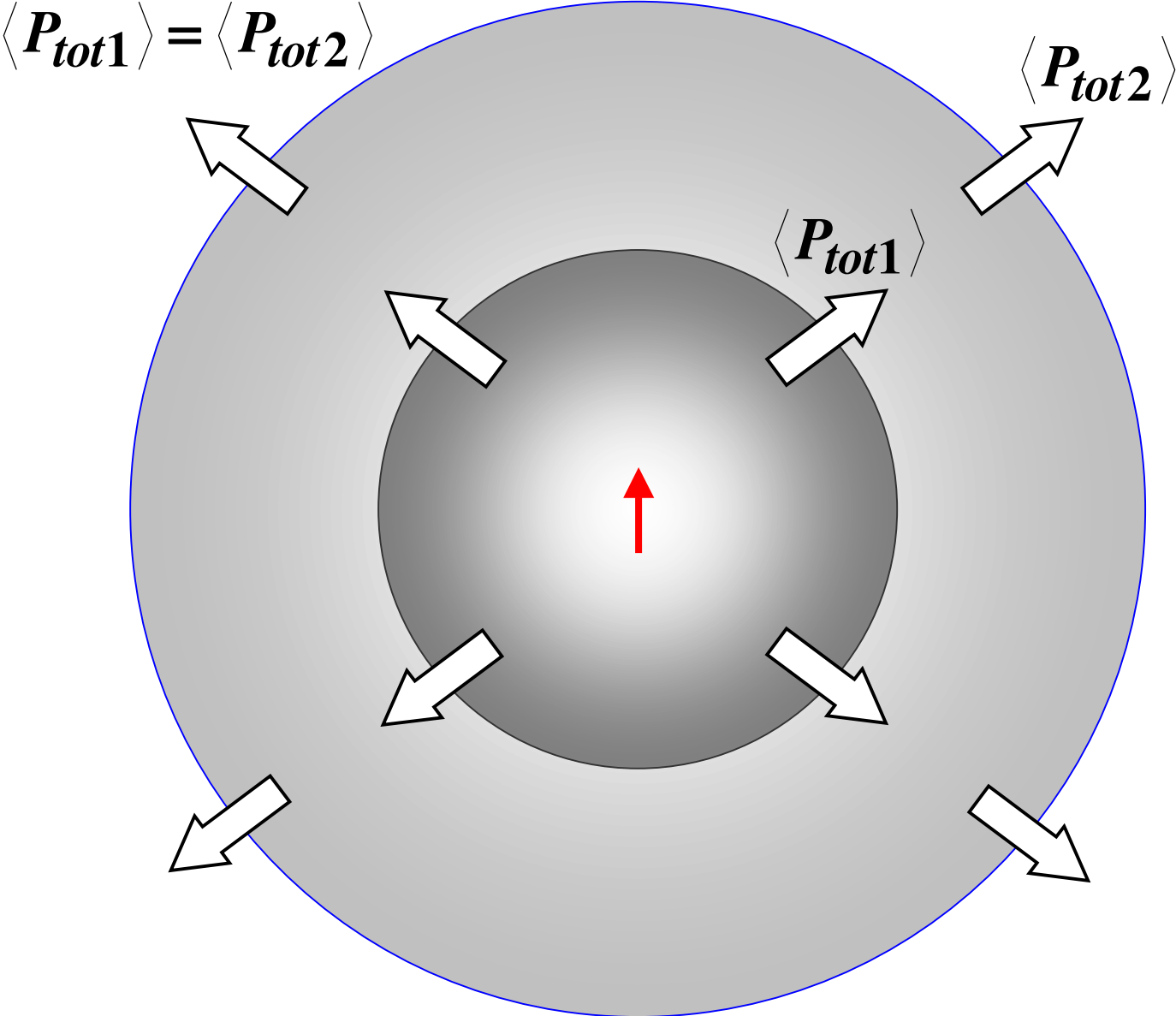


Total Radiated Power

The **time-average power flow** is **not uniform** on the spherical wave front. In order to obtain the **total power** radiated by the **infinitesimal antenna**, it is necessary to integrate over the sphere

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle P_{tot} \rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^{\pi} d\theta r^2 \sin\theta |\langle \vec{P}(t) \rangle| \\
 &= \frac{\eta}{2} \left(\frac{\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z}{4\pi r} \right)^2 r^2 \int_0^{\pi} d\theta \sin^3\theta \\
 &= \frac{4\pi\eta}{3} \left(\frac{\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z}{4\pi} \right)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Note: the **total radiated power** is independent of distance. Although the **power decreases with distance**, the **integral** of the power over concentric spherical wave fronts remains **constant**.



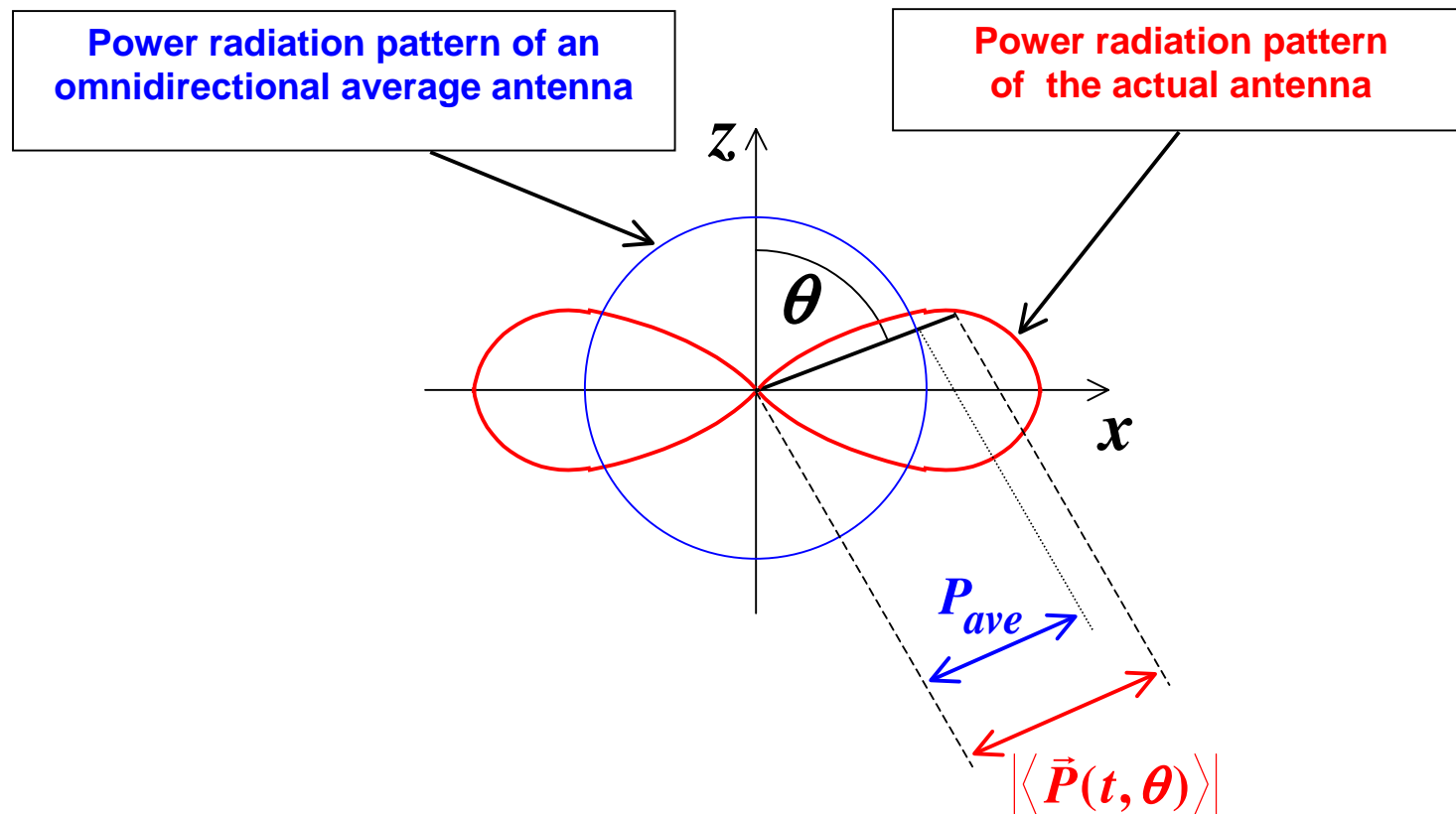
The **total radiated power** is also the power delivered by the transmission line to the **real** part of the **equivalent impedance** seen at the input of the antenna

$$\langle P_{tot} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} |\vec{I}|^2 R_{eq} = \frac{4\pi\eta}{3} \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{|\vec{I}| \Delta z}{4\pi} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{2} |\vec{I}|^2 \underbrace{\left[\frac{2\pi\eta}{3} \left(\frac{\Delta z}{\lambda} \right)^2 \right]}_{R_{eq}}$$

The equivalent resistance of the antenna is usually called **radiation resistance**. In free space

$$\eta = \eta_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} = 120\pi [\Omega] \quad \Rightarrow \quad R_{eq} = 80\pi^2 \left(\frac{\Delta z}{\lambda} \right)^2 [\Omega]$$

The **total radiated power** is also used to define the **average** power density emitted by the antenna. The average power density corresponds to the radiation of a hypothetical **omnidirectional (isotropic) antenna**, which is used as a reference to understand the **directive** properties of any antenna.



The time–average power density is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{ave} &= \frac{\text{Total Radiated Power}}{\text{Surface of wave front}} = \\
 &= \frac{\langle P_{tot} \rangle}{4\pi r^2} = \frac{\eta}{12\pi} (\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z)^2 \frac{1}{4\pi r^2} = \frac{\eta}{3} \left(\frac{\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z}{4\pi r} \right)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

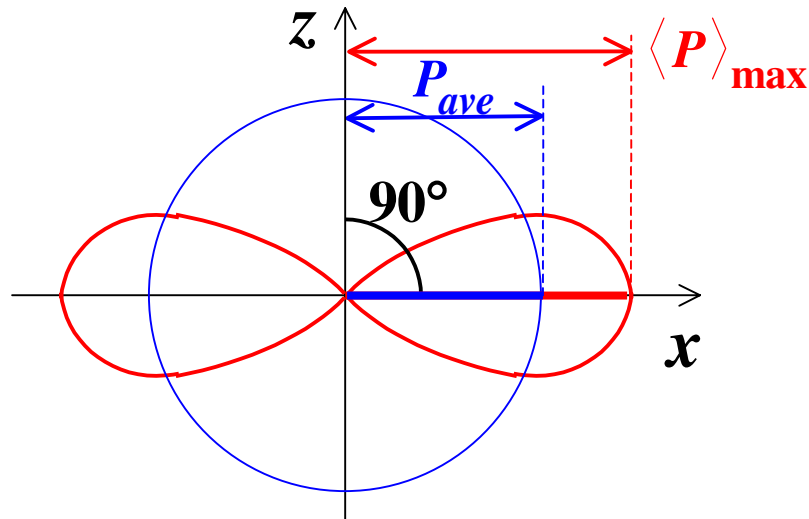
The **directive gain** of the **infinitesimal antenna** is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(\theta, \varphi) &= \frac{\langle \vec{P}(t, r, \theta) \rangle}{P_{ave}} = \frac{\eta}{2} \left(\frac{\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z}{4\pi r} \right)^2 \sin^2 \theta \left(\frac{\eta}{3} \left(\frac{\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z}{4\pi r} \right)^2 \right)^{-1} \\
 &= \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 \theta
 \end{aligned}$$

The **maximum** value of the directive gain is called **directivity** of the antenna. For the **infinitesimal antenna**, the maximum of the directive gain occurs when the elevation angle is 90°

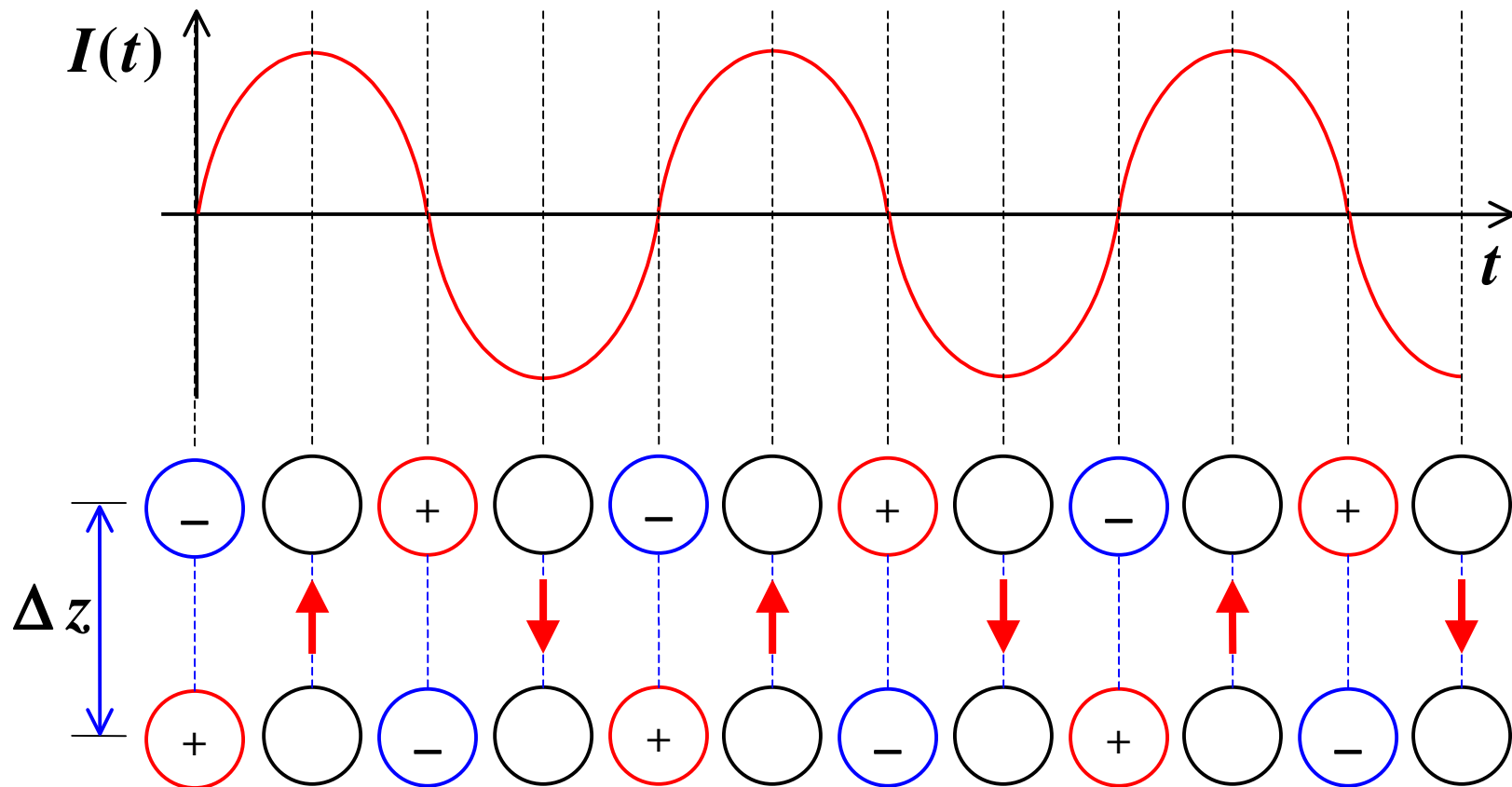
$$\text{Directivity} = \max\{D(\theta, \varphi)\} = \frac{3}{2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1.5$$

The **directivity** gives a measure of how the **actual antenna** performs in the direction of maximum radiation, with respect to the **ideal isotropic antenna** which emits the average power in all directions.



The **infinitesimal antenna** is a suitable model to study the behavior of the elementary radiating element called **Hertzian dipole**.

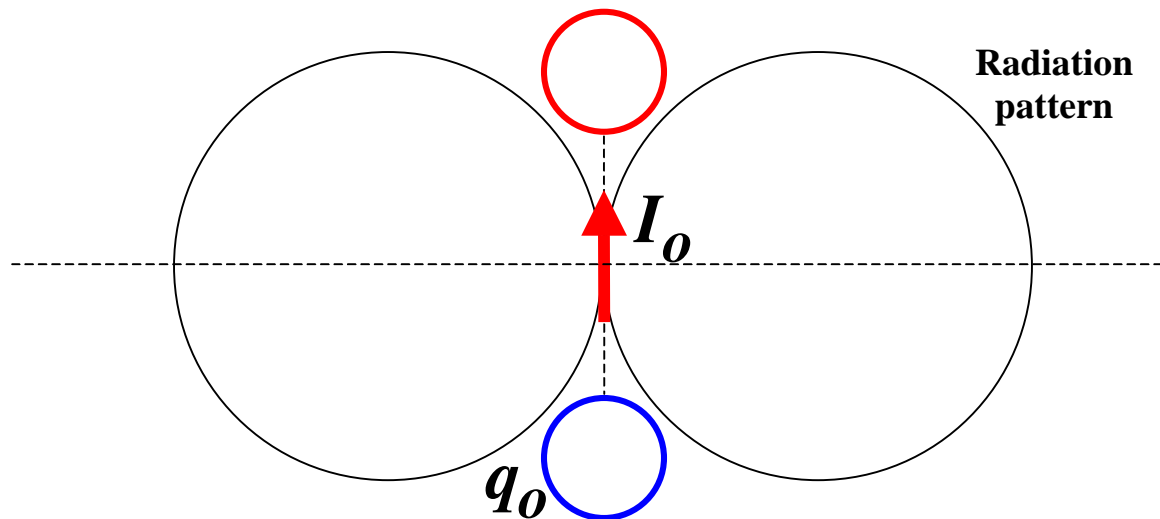
Consider two small charge reservoirs, separated by a distance Δz , which exchange mobile charge in the form of an oscillatory current



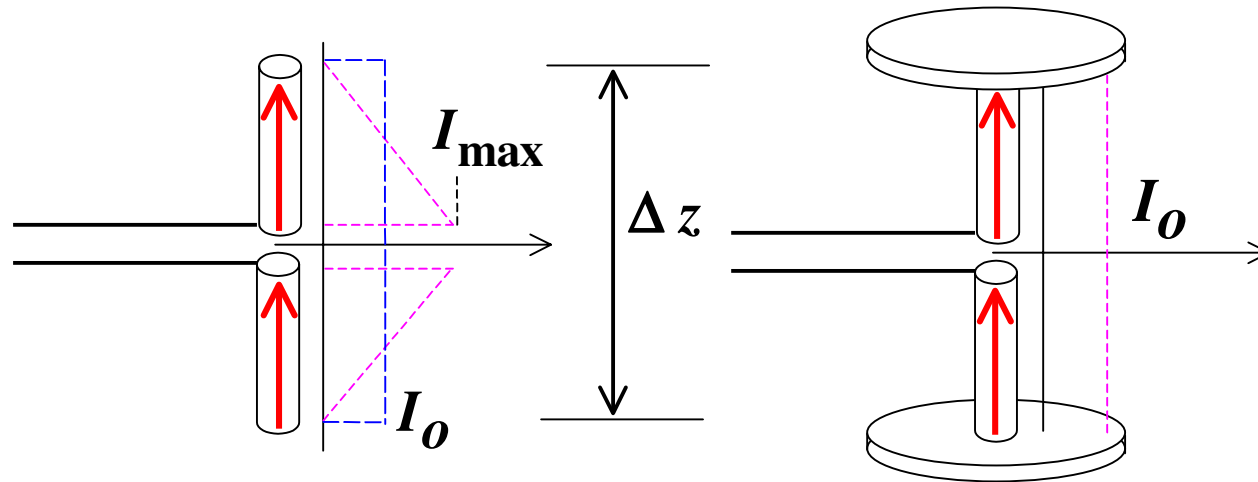
The **Hertzian dipole** can be used as an elementary model for many natural charge oscillation phenomena. The **radiated fields** can be described by using the results of the **infinitesimal antenna**.

Assuming a sinusoidally varying charge flow between the reservoirs, the **oscillating current** is

$$\underbrace{I(t)}_{\text{current flowing out of reservoir}} = \frac{d}{dt} q(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \underbrace{q_o \cos(\omega t)}_{\text{charge on reference reservoir}} \Rightarrow \text{phasor } I_o = j\omega q_o$$



A **short wire** antenna has a **triangular** current distribution, since the current itself has to reach a null at the end the wires. The current can be made approximately **uniform** by adding **capacitor plates**.



The small **capacitor plate antenna** is **equivalent** to a **Hertzian dipole** and the radiated fields can also be described by using the results of the **infinitesimal antenna**. The **short wire antenna** can be described by the same results, if one uses an average current value giving the same integral of the current

$$I_0 = I_{\max}/2$$

Example – A Hertzian dipole is 1.0 meters long and it operates at the frequency of 1.0 MHz, with feeding current $I_o = 1.0$ Ampères. Find the total radiated power.

$$\lambda = c/f \approx 3 \times 10^8 / 10^6 = 300$$

$$\Delta z = 1 \text{ m} \ll \lambda \Rightarrow \text{Hertzian dipole}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle P_{tot} \rangle &= \frac{4\pi\eta}{3} \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{I_o \Delta z}{4\pi} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{12\pi} \underbrace{120\pi}_{\eta_o} \left(\frac{2\pi}{\underbrace{300}_{\lambda}} \right)^2 \left(\underbrace{1}_{I_o} \cdot \underbrace{1}_{\Delta z} \right)^2 \\ &= 4.39 \text{ mW} \end{aligned}$$

For a short dipole with triangular current distribution and maximum current $I_{max} = 1.0$ Ampère

$$I_o = I_{max}/2 \Rightarrow \langle P_{tot} \rangle = 4.39 / 4 \approx 1.09 \text{ mW}$$

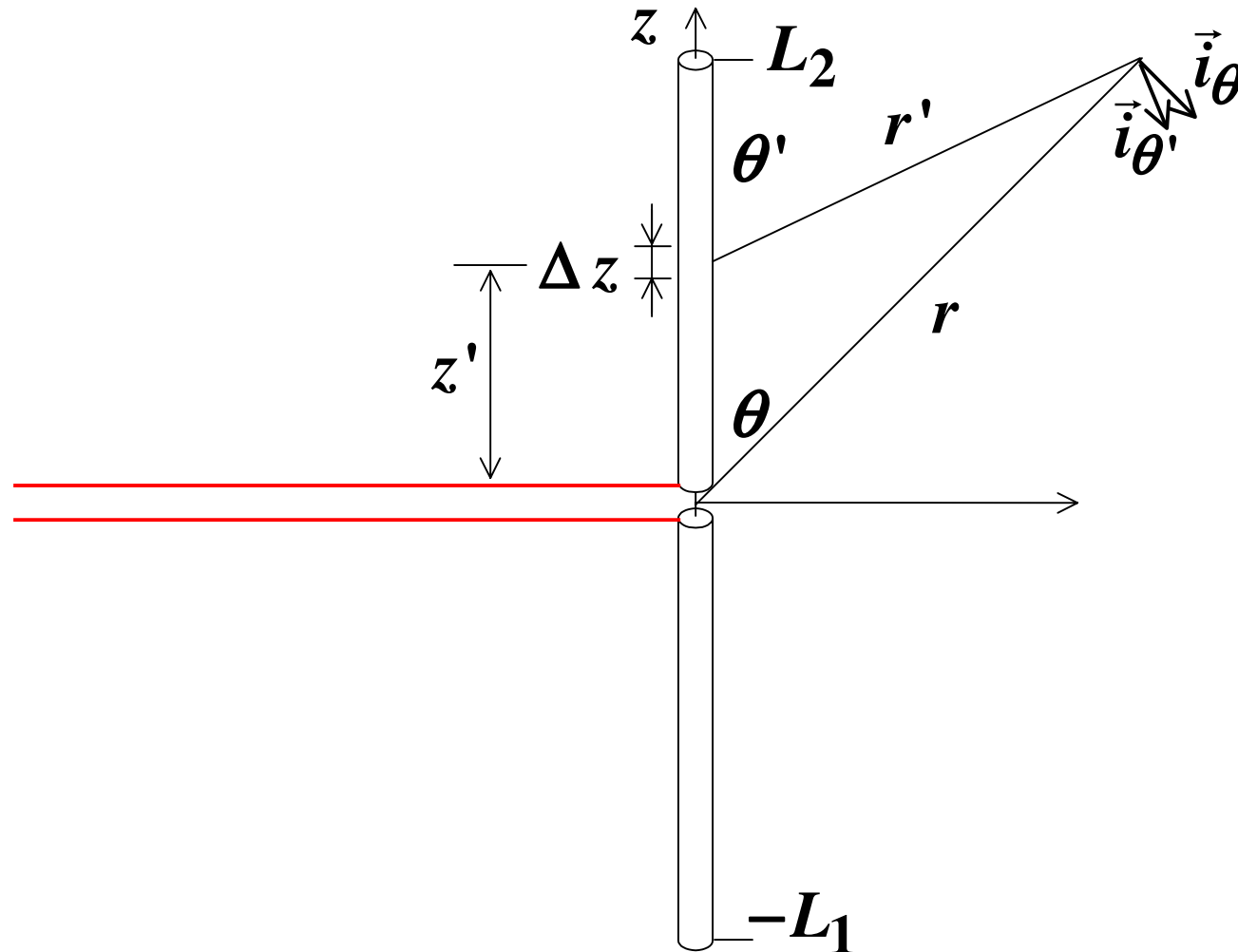
Time-dependent fields - Consider the far-field approximation

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{H}(t) &= \text{Re}\left\{\vec{H} e^{j\omega t}\right\} \approx \vec{i}_\varphi \text{Re}\left\{\frac{j\beta|\vec{I}|\Delta z \sin\theta}{4\pi r} e^{j(\omega t - \beta r)}\right\} \\
 &\approx \vec{i}_\varphi \text{Re}\left\{\frac{\beta|\vec{I}|\Delta z \sin\theta}{4\pi r} \left(j\cos(\omega t - \beta r) + j^2 \sin(\omega t - \beta r)\right)\right\} \\
 &\approx -\vec{i}_\varphi \frac{\beta|\vec{I}|\Delta z \sin\theta}{4\pi r} \sin(\omega t - \beta r)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{E}(t) &= \text{Re}\left\{\vec{E} e^{j\omega t}\right\} \\
 &\approx -\vec{i}_\theta \eta \frac{\beta|\vec{I}|\Delta z \sin\theta}{4\pi r} \sin(\omega t - \beta r)
 \end{aligned}$$

Linear Antennas

Consider a dipole with wires of length **comparable** to the wavelength.



Because of its length, the **current** flowing in the antenna wire is a **function of** the coordinate **z**. To evaluate the **far-field** at an observation point, we divide the antenna into **segments** which can be considered as elementary **infinitesimal antennas**.

The **electric field** radiated by **each element** , in the **far-field** approximation, is

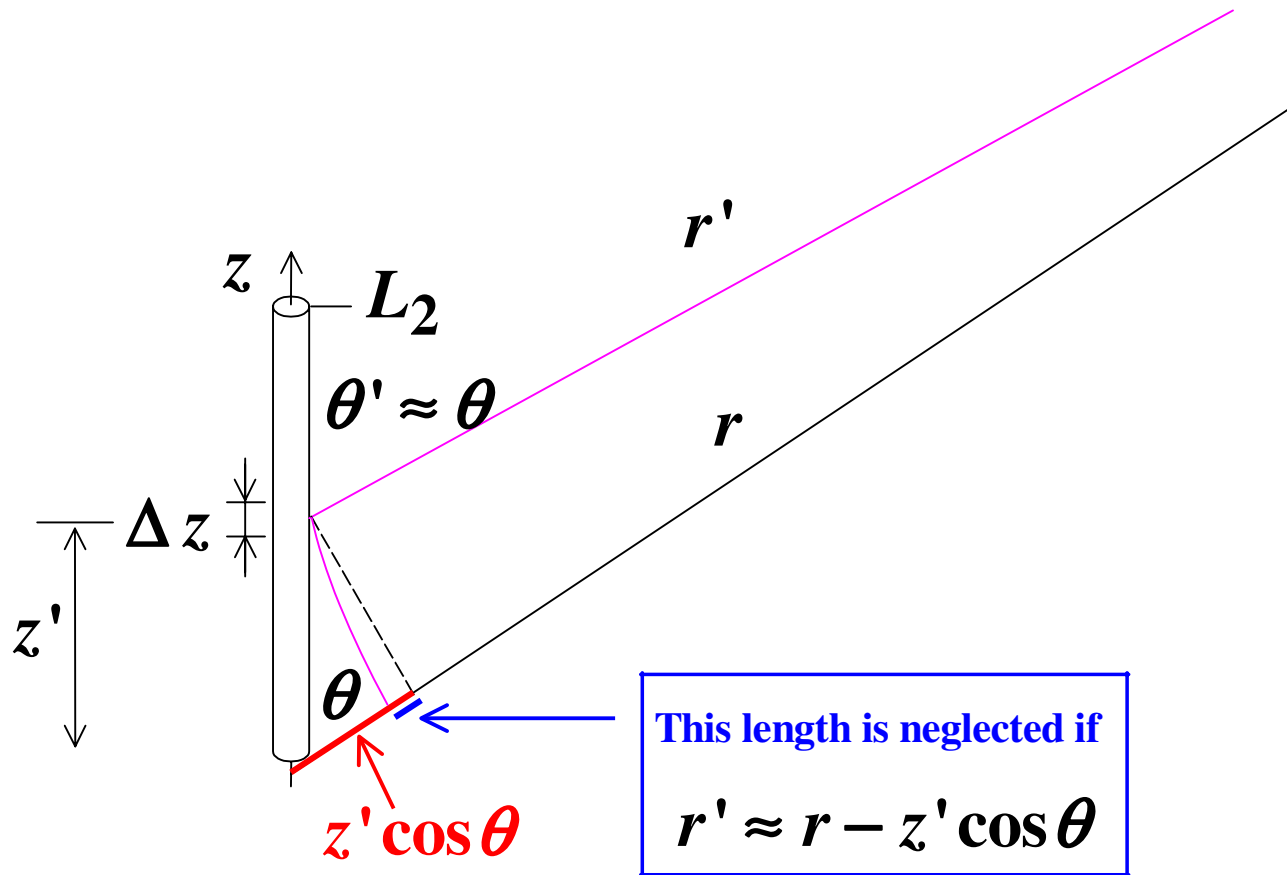
$$\Delta E' = \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r'}}{4\pi r'} \sin \theta'$$

In **far-field** conditions we can use these **additional approximations**

$$\theta \approx \theta'$$

$$r' \approx r - z' \cos \theta$$

The lines r and r' are nearly **parallel** under these assumptions.



The **electric field** contributions due to each **infinitesimal segment** becomes

$$\Delta E' = \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta |\vec{I}| \Delta z e^{-j\beta r} \overbrace{e^{j\beta z' \cos \theta}}^{\text{you cannot neglect here}}}{\underbrace{4\pi r - 4\pi z' \cos \theta}_{\text{you can neglect here}}} \sin \theta$$

The **total fields** are obtained by **integration** of all the contributions

$$\vec{E} = \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin \theta \cdot \int_{-L_1}^{L_2} I(z) e^{j\beta z \cos \theta} dz$$

$$\vec{H} = \vec{i}_\varphi \frac{j\beta e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin \theta \cdot \int_{-L_1}^{L_2} I(z) e^{j\beta z \cos \theta} dz$$

Short Dipole

Consider a short **symmetric dipole** comprising two wires, each of length $L \ll \lambda$. Assume a **triangular** distribution of the phasor **current** on the wires

$$\mathbf{I}(z) = \begin{cases} I_{\max} (1 - z/L) & z \geq 0 \\ I_{\max} (1 + z/L) & z < 0 \end{cases}$$

The **integral** in the **field** expressions becomes

$$\int_{-L}^L \mathbf{I}(z) \underbrace{e^{j\beta z \cos \theta}}_{\approx 1} dz \approx \int_{-L}^L \mathbf{I}(z) dz = \frac{2L}{2} I_{\max}$$

since $\max |\beta z| = \beta \cdot L = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} L \ll 1$ for a **short dipole**

$$\Rightarrow e^{j\beta z \cos \theta} \approx 1$$

The final expression for **far-fields** of the **short dipole** are similar to the expressions for the **Hertzian dipole** where the **average** of the **triangular current** distribution is used

$$\vec{E} = \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin \theta \cdot \overbrace{\frac{\Delta z}{2L}} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{I_{\max}}{2}}_{\text{average current}}$$

$$= \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta I_{\max} L e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin \theta$$

$$\vec{H} = \vec{i}_\phi \frac{j\beta I_{\max} L e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin \theta$$

Half-wavelength dipole

Consider a **symmetric linear antenna** with total **length $\lambda/2$** and assume a **current** phasor distribution on the wires which is approximately sinusoidal

$$I(z) = I_{\max} \cos(\beta z)$$

The **integral** in the **field** expressions is

$$\int_{-\lambda/4}^{\lambda/4} I_{\max} \cos(\beta z) e^{j\beta z \cos \theta} dz = \frac{2I_{\max}}{\beta \sin^2 \theta} \cos\left(\frac{\pi \cos \theta}{2}\right)$$

We obtain the **far-field** expressions

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} = \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j e^{-j\beta r}}{2\pi r} \frac{I_{\max}}{\sin \theta} \cos\left(\frac{\pi \cos \theta}{2}\right)$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{H}} = \vec{i}_\varphi \frac{j e^{-j\beta r}}{2\pi r} \frac{I_{\max}}{\sin \theta} \cos\left(\frac{\pi \cos \theta}{2}\right)$$

and the **time-average Poynting vector**

$$\langle \vec{\mathbf{P}}(t) \rangle = \vec{i}_r \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{I_{\max}^2}{8\pi^2 r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi \cos \theta}{2}\right)$$

The **total radiated power** is obtained after **integration** of the time-average **Poynting vector**

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{tot} &= \frac{1}{2} I_{\max}^2 \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{1}{4\pi} \underbrace{\int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{1 - \cos(u)}{u} \right) du}_{\approx 2.4376} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} I_{\max}^2 \underbrace{\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \cdot 0.193978}_{R_{eq}}
 \end{aligned}$$

The **integral** above cannot be solved analytically, but the value is found **numerically** or from published tables. The equivalent **resistance** of the half-wave dipole antenna in **air** is then

$$R_{eq}(\lambda/2) = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \cdot 0.193978 \approx 73.07 \, \Omega$$

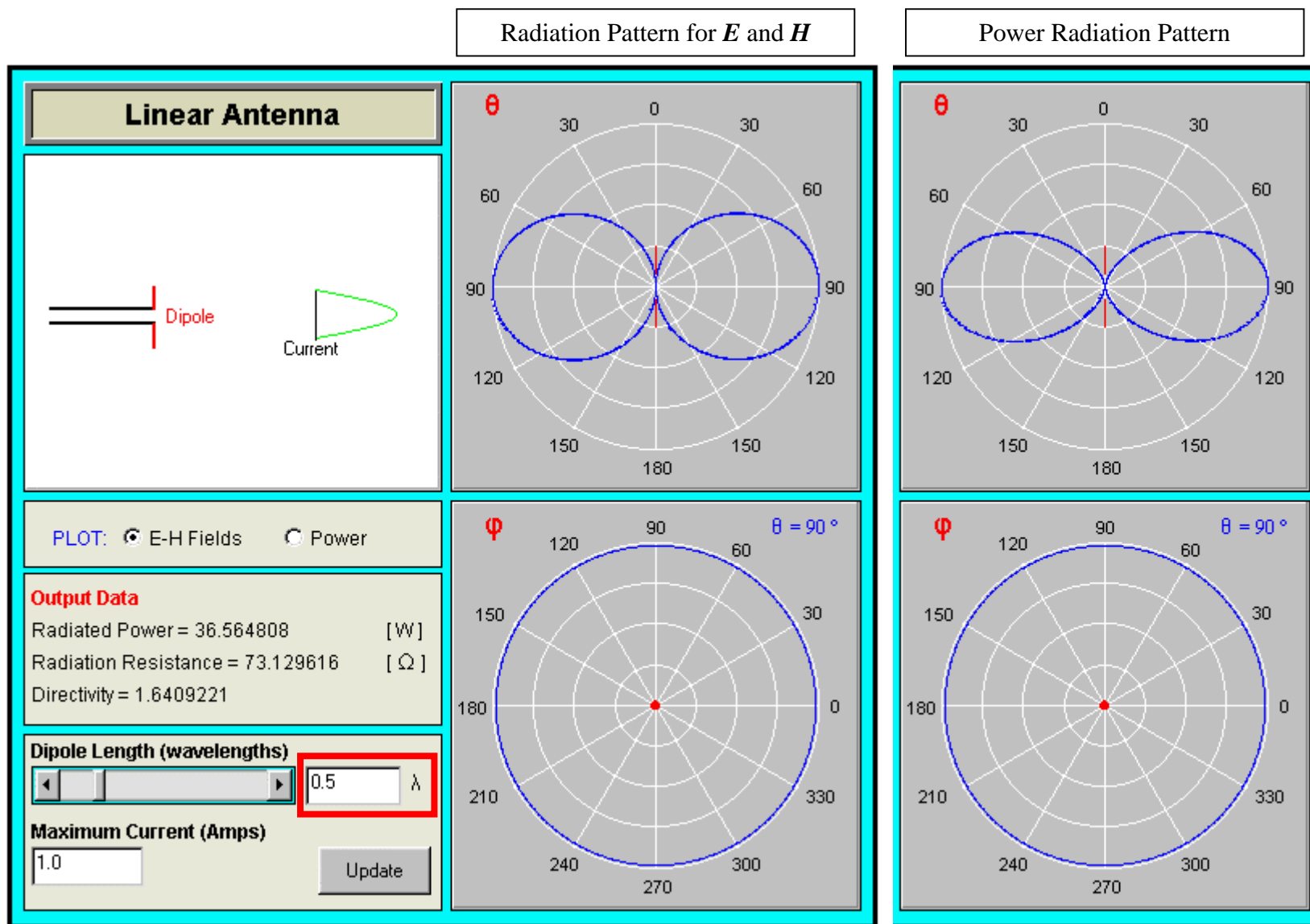
The direction of **maximum radiation strength** is obtained again for elevation angle $\theta = 90^\circ$ and we obtain the **directivity**

$$D = \frac{|\langle \vec{P}(t, r, 90^\circ) \rangle|}{P_{tot} / 4\pi r^2} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{I_{max}^2}{8\pi^2 r^2}}{\frac{1}{8\pi^2 r^2} I_{max}^2 \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \cdot 2.4376} \approx 1.641$$

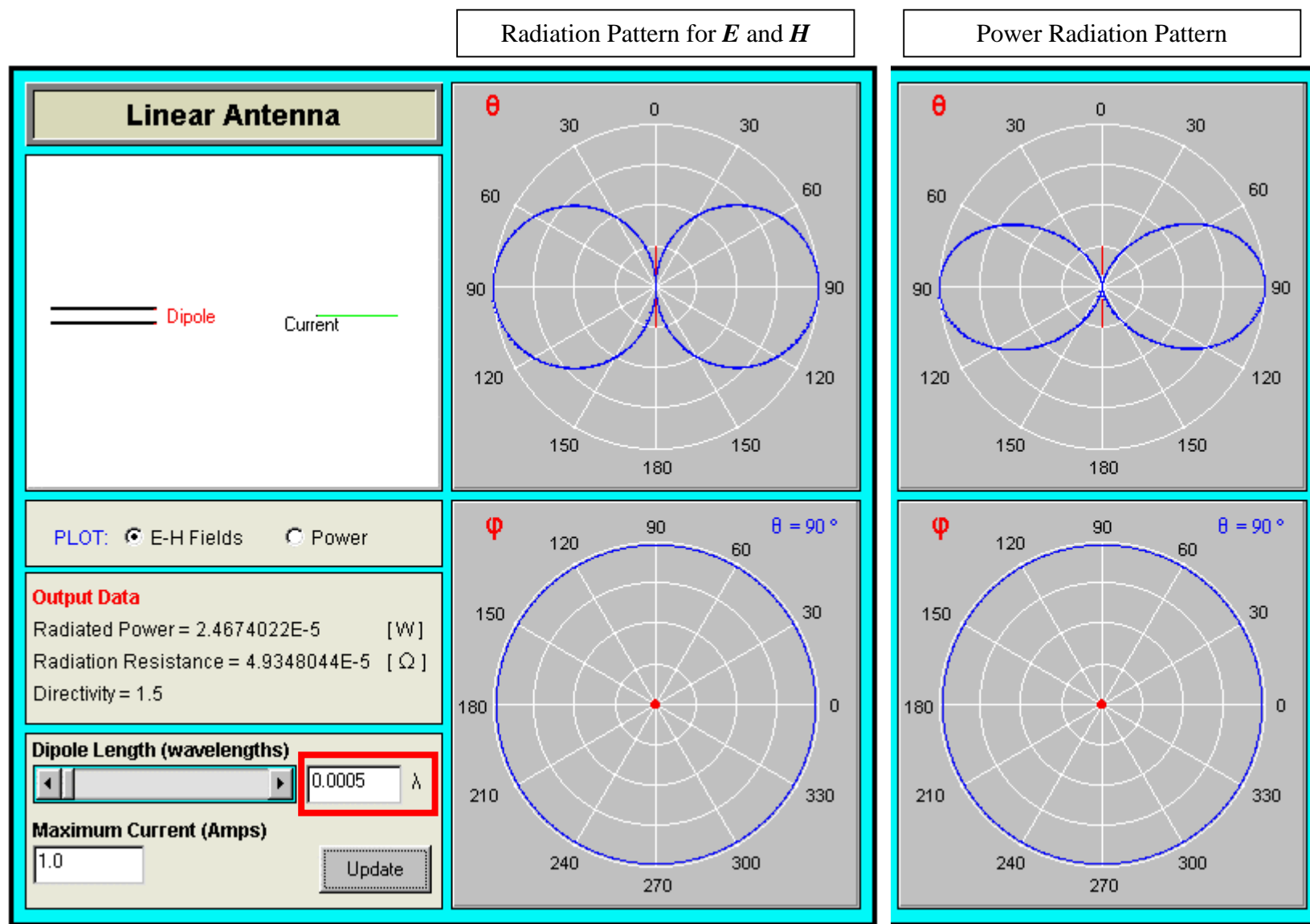
The **directivity** of the half-wavelength dipole is **marginally better** than the directivity for a **Hertzian dipole** ($D = 1.5$).

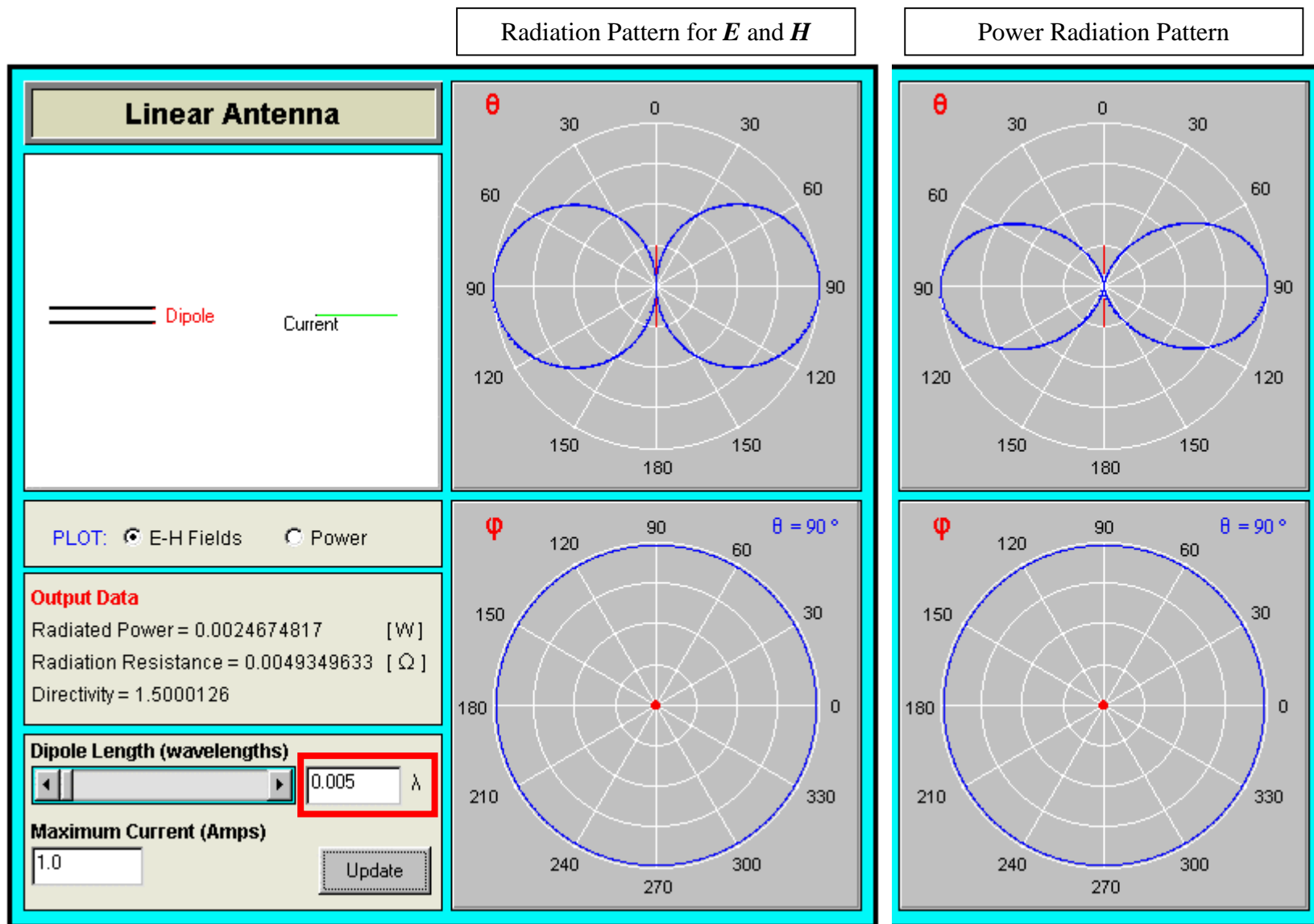
The real improvement is in the **much larger radiation resistance**, which is now comparable to the characteristic impedance of typical transmission line.

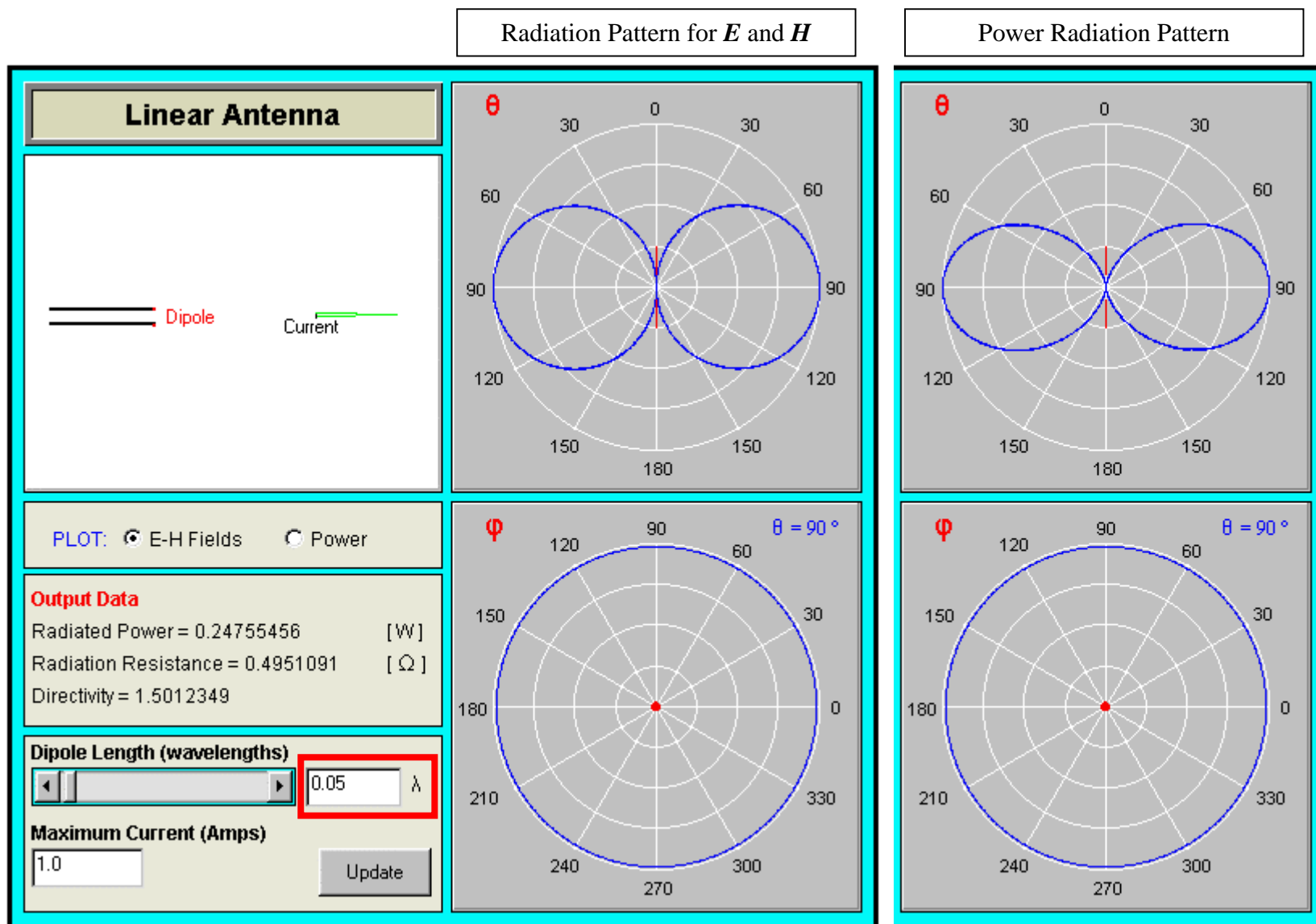
From the linear antenna applet



For **short dipoles** of length 0.0005λ to 0.05λ







For **general symmetric linear antennas** with **two** wires of **length L** , it is convenient to express the **current** distribution on the wires as

$$I(z) = I_{\max} \sin \{ \beta(L - |z|) \}$$

The **integral** in the **field** expressions is now

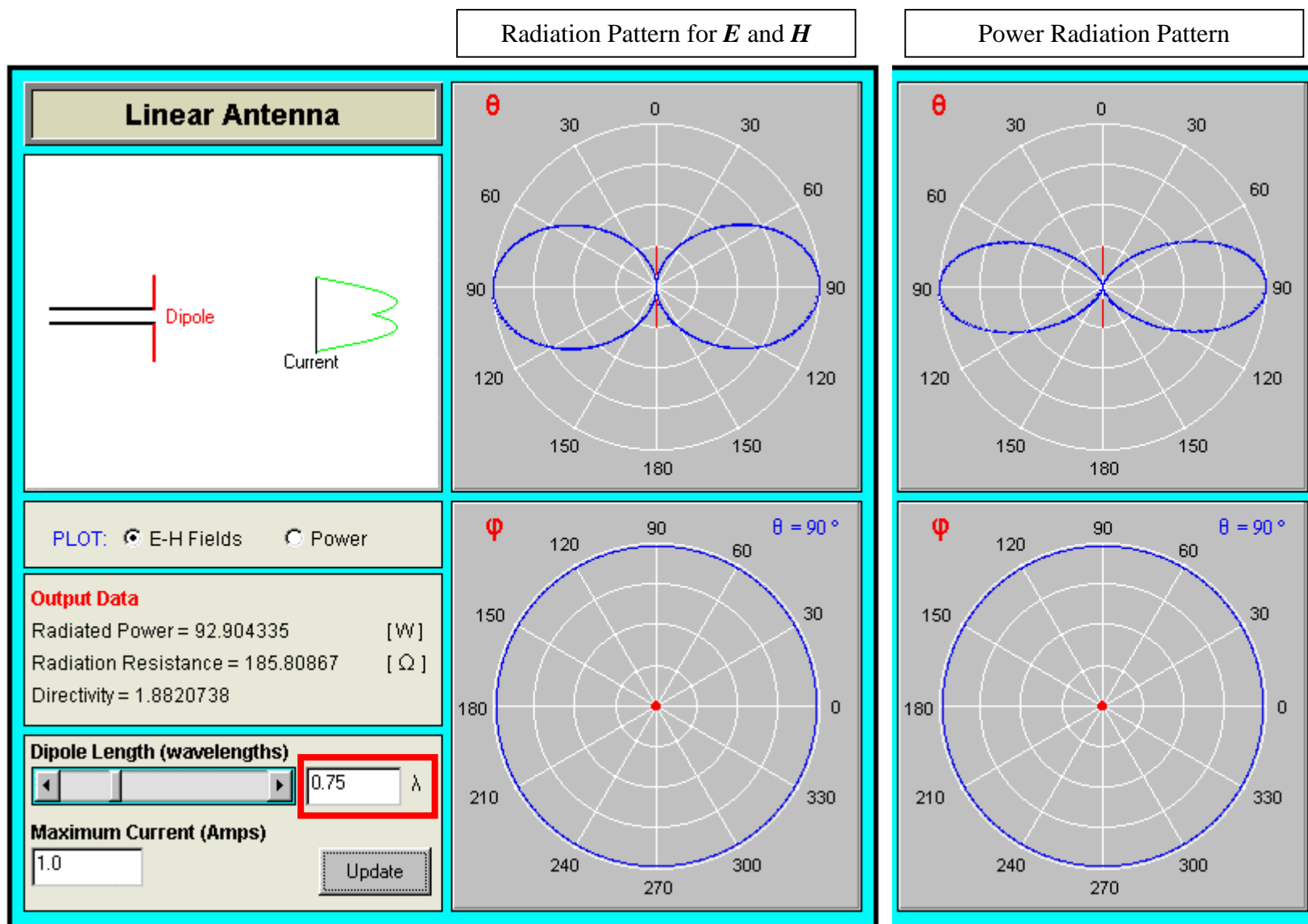
$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-L}^L I_{\max} \sin [\beta(L - |z|)] e^{j\beta z \cos \theta} dz = \\ & = \frac{2I_{\max}}{\beta \sin^2 \theta} \{ \cos(\beta L \cos \theta) - \cos(\beta L) \} \end{aligned}$$

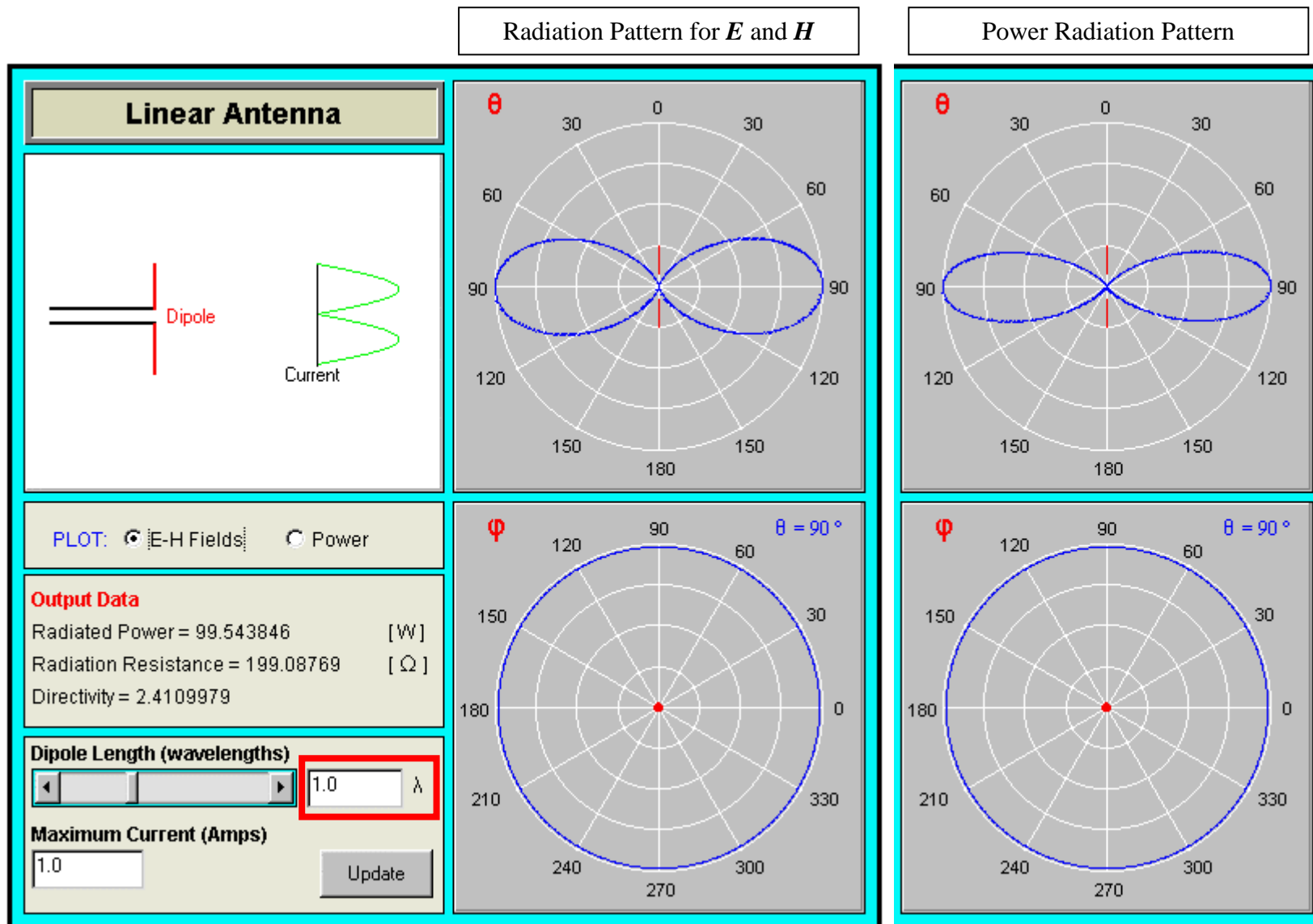
The **field** expressions become

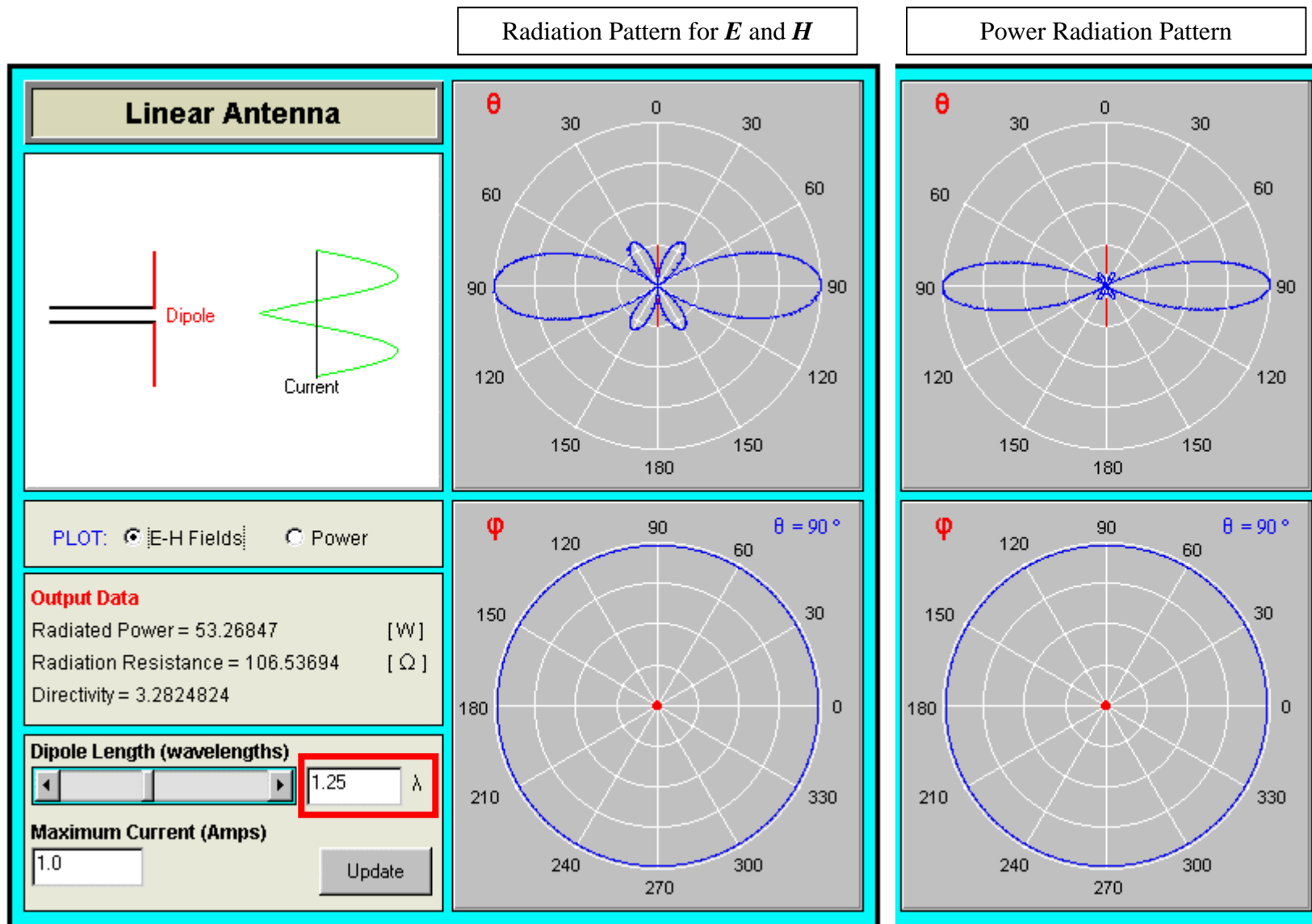
$$\begin{aligned}\vec{\mathbf{E}} &= \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j\beta e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin\theta \cdot \int_{-L_1}^{L_2} \mathbf{I}(z) e^{j\beta z \cos\theta} dz \\ &= \vec{i}_\theta \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{j I_{\max} e^{-j\beta r}}{2\pi r \sin\theta} \{ \cos(\beta L \cos\theta) - \cos(\beta L) \}\end{aligned}$$

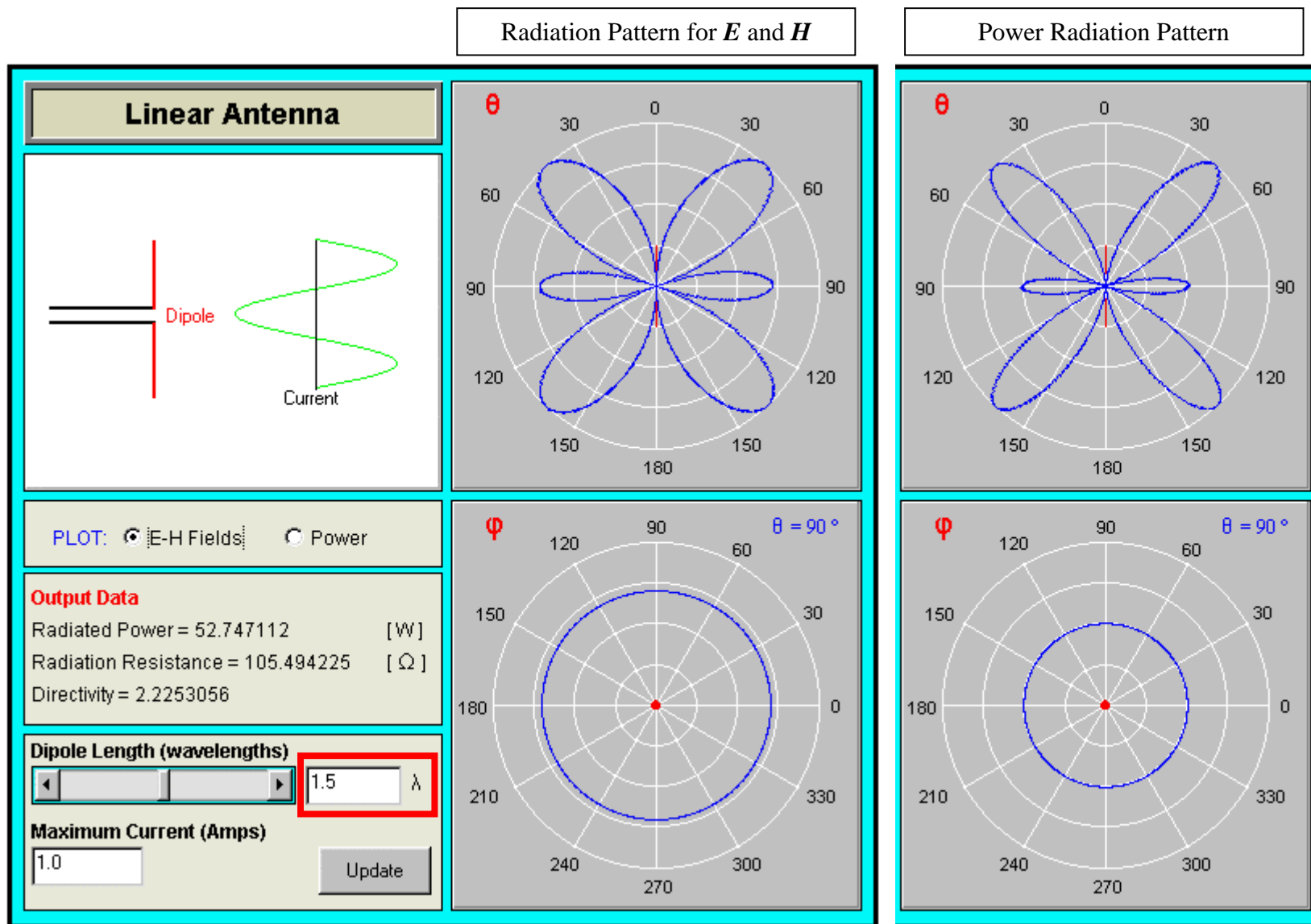
$$\begin{aligned}\vec{\mathbf{H}} &= \vec{i}_\varphi \frac{j\beta e^{-j\beta r}}{4\pi r} \sin\theta \cdot \int_{-L_1}^{L_2} \mathbf{I}(z) e^{j\beta z \cos\theta} dz \\ &= \vec{i}_\varphi \frac{j I_{\max} e^{-j\beta r}}{2\pi r \sin\theta} \{ \cos(\beta L \cos\theta) - \cos(\beta L) \}\end{aligned}$$

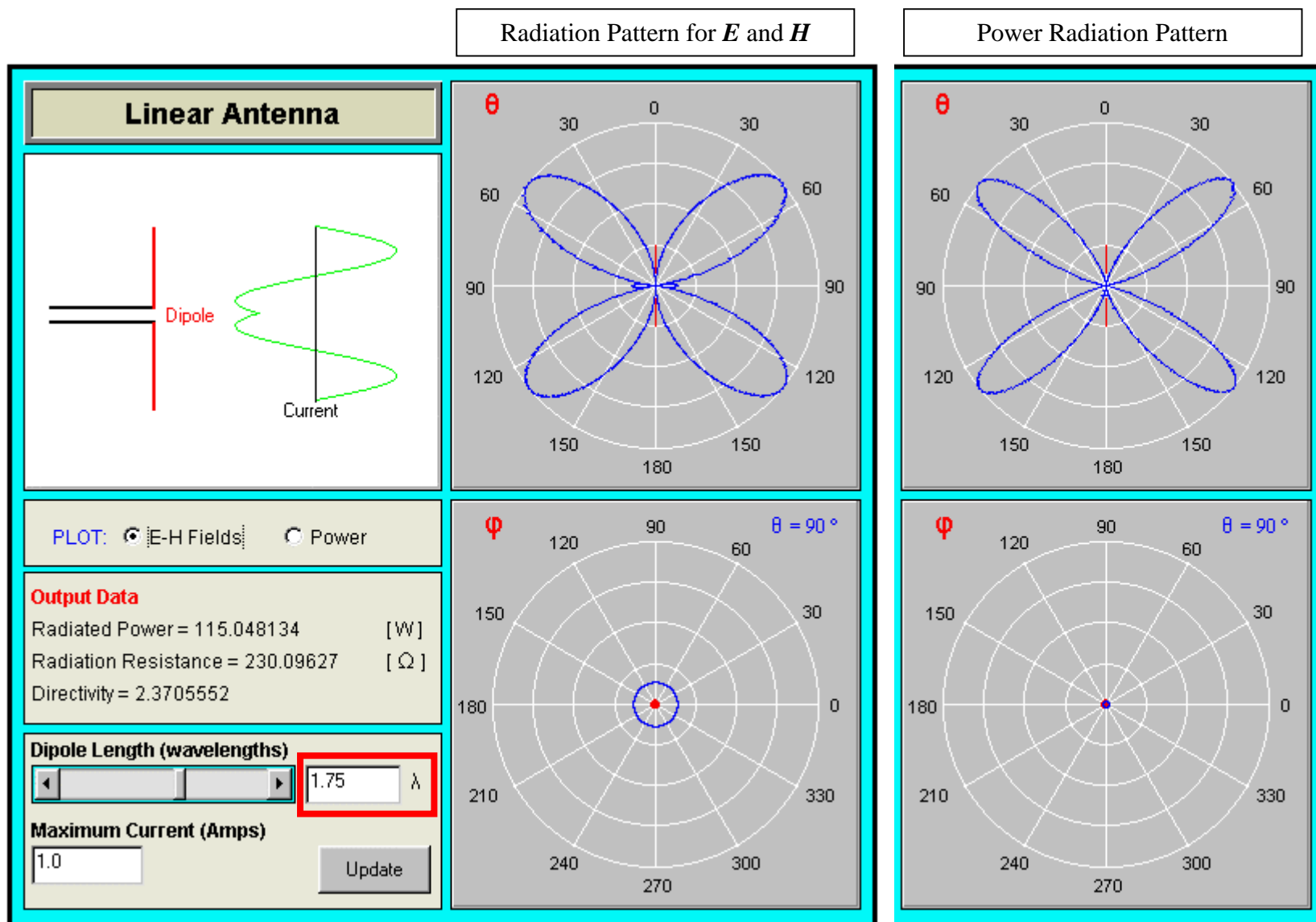
Examples of long wire antennas

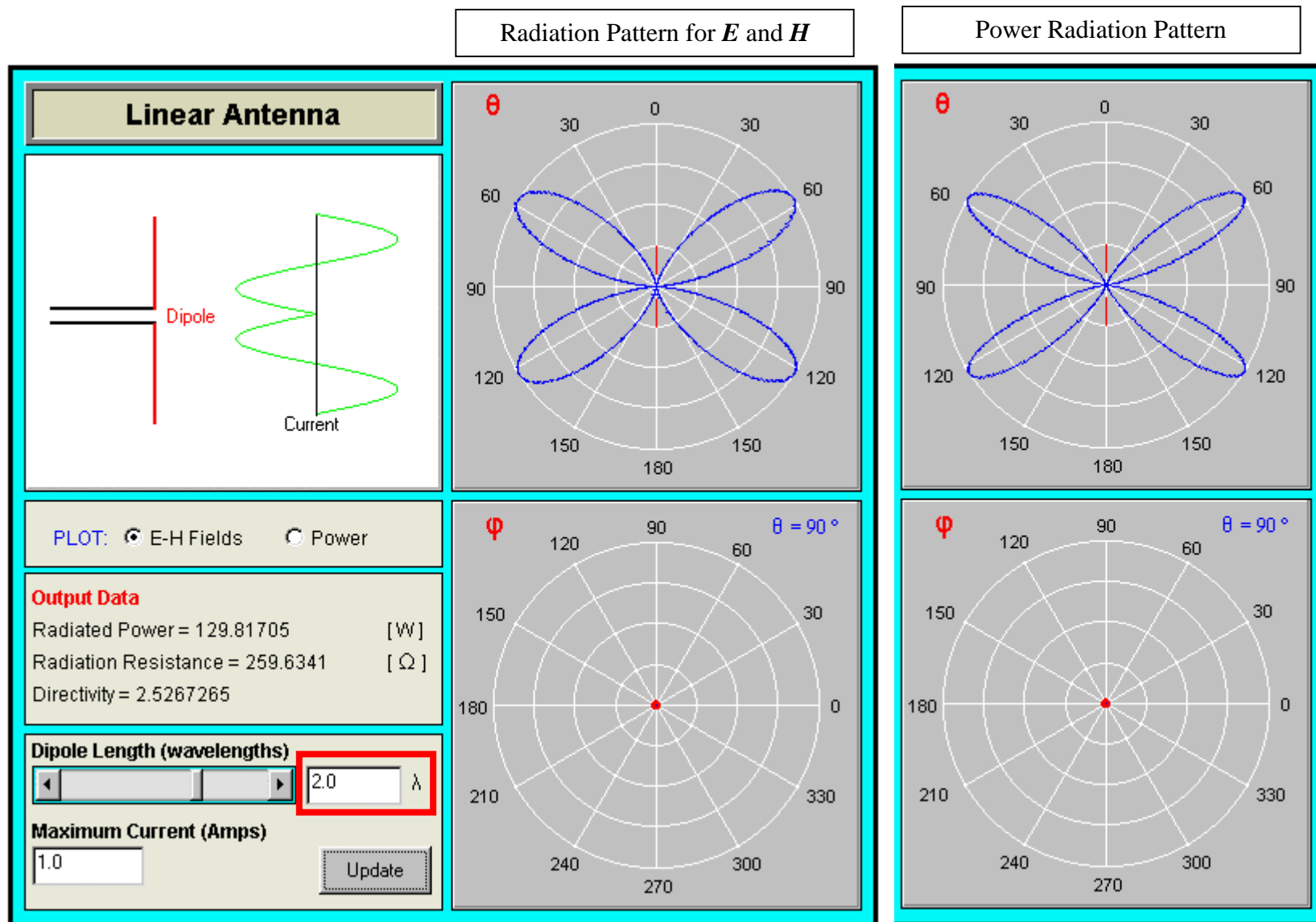


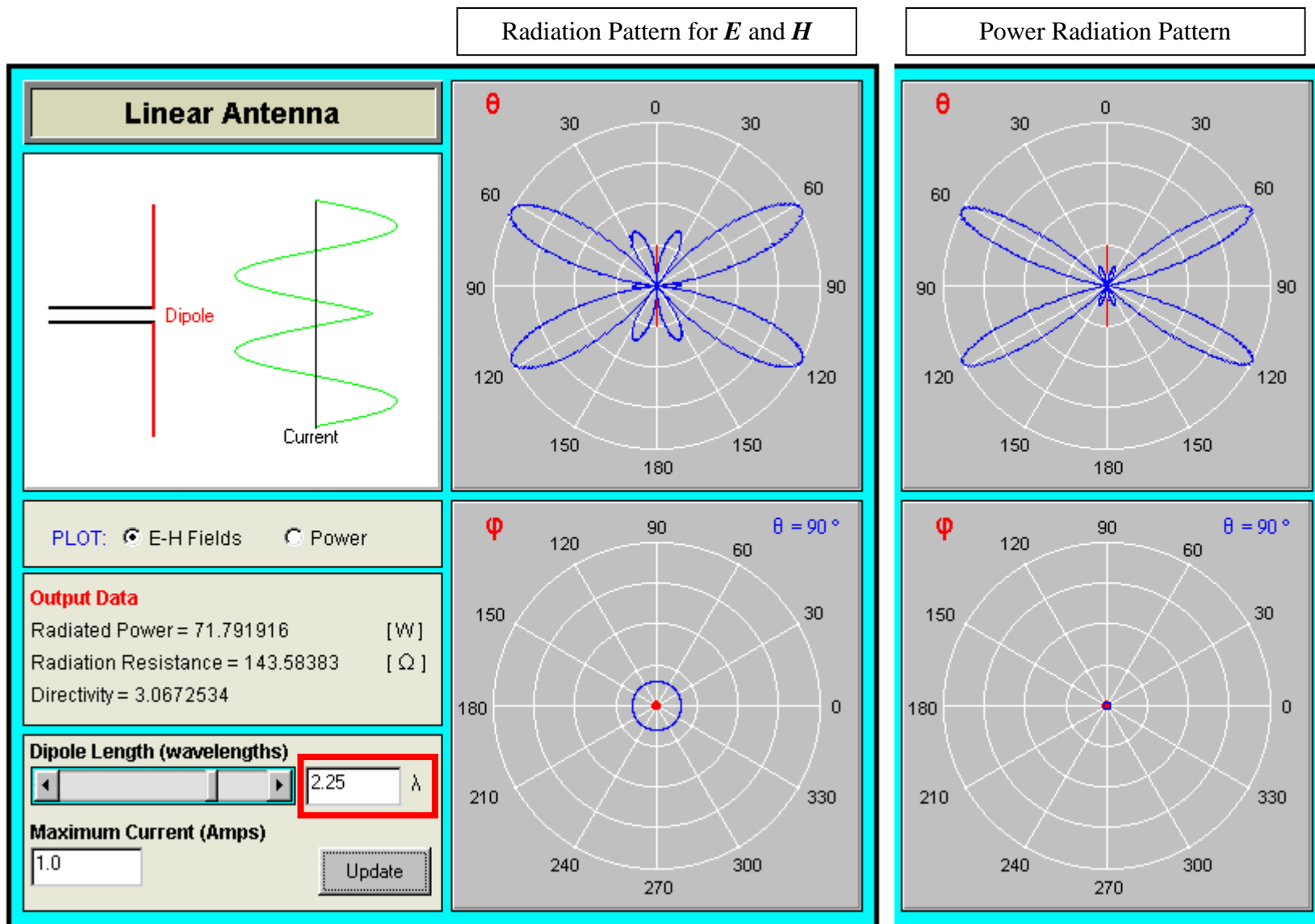


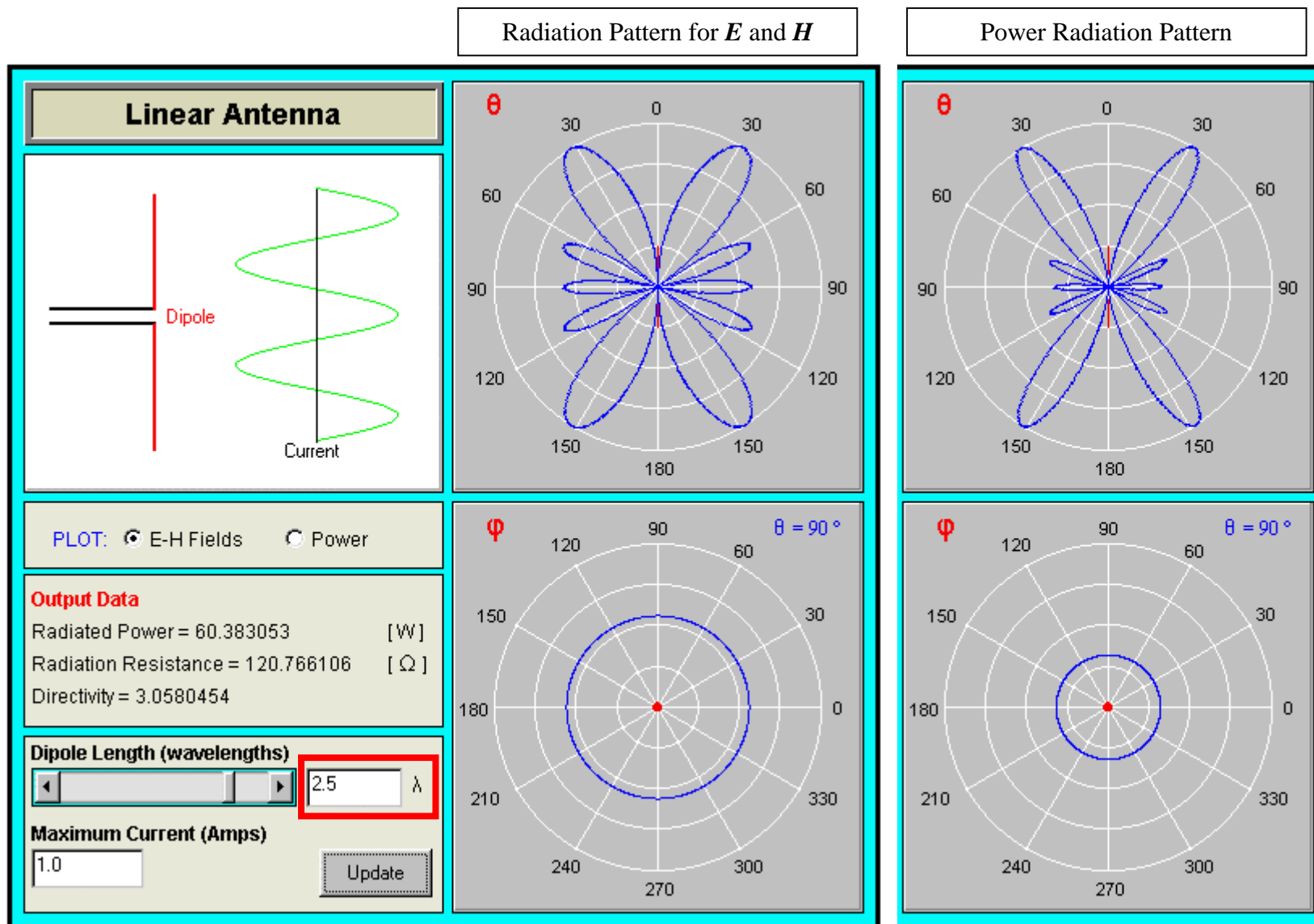


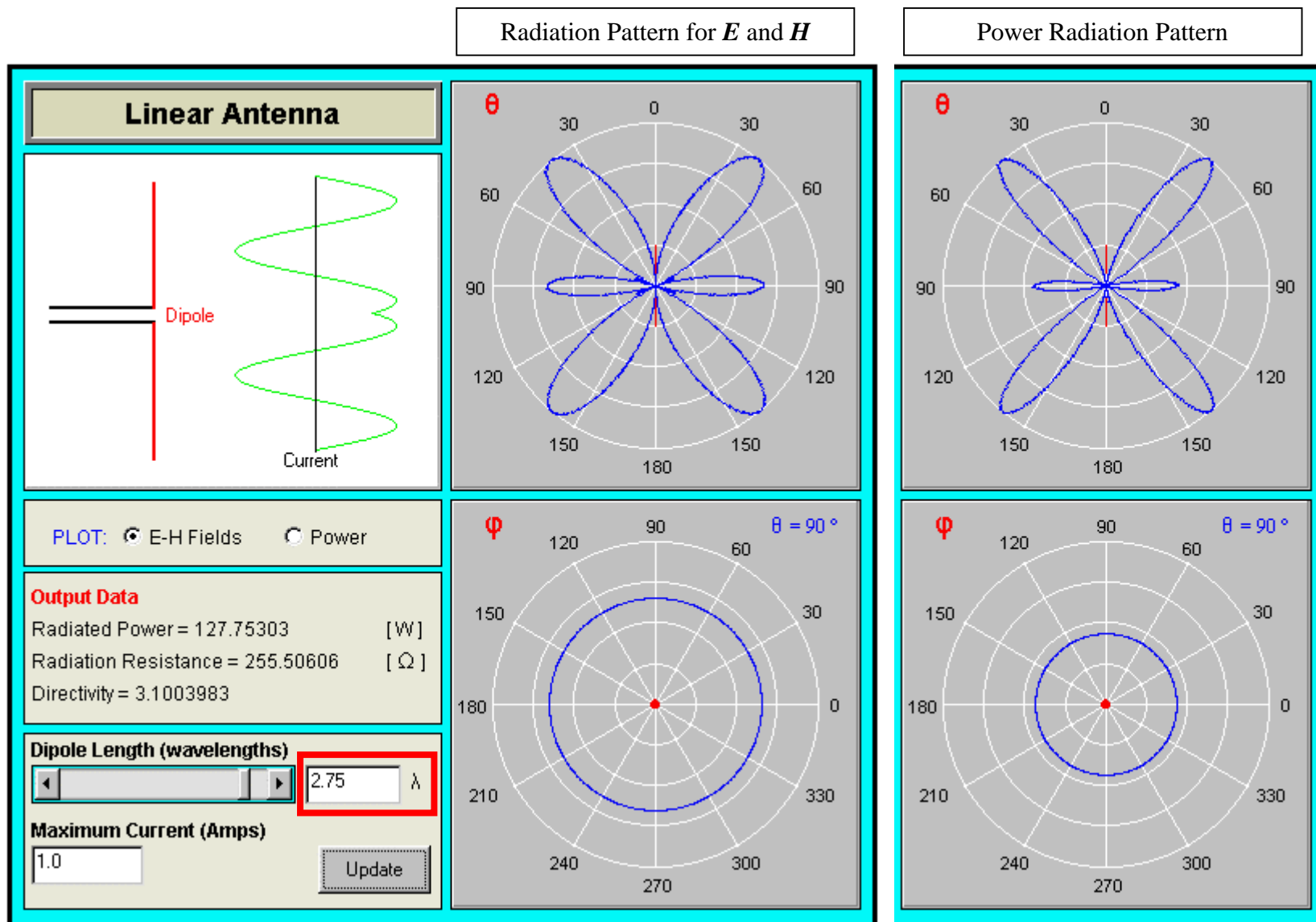






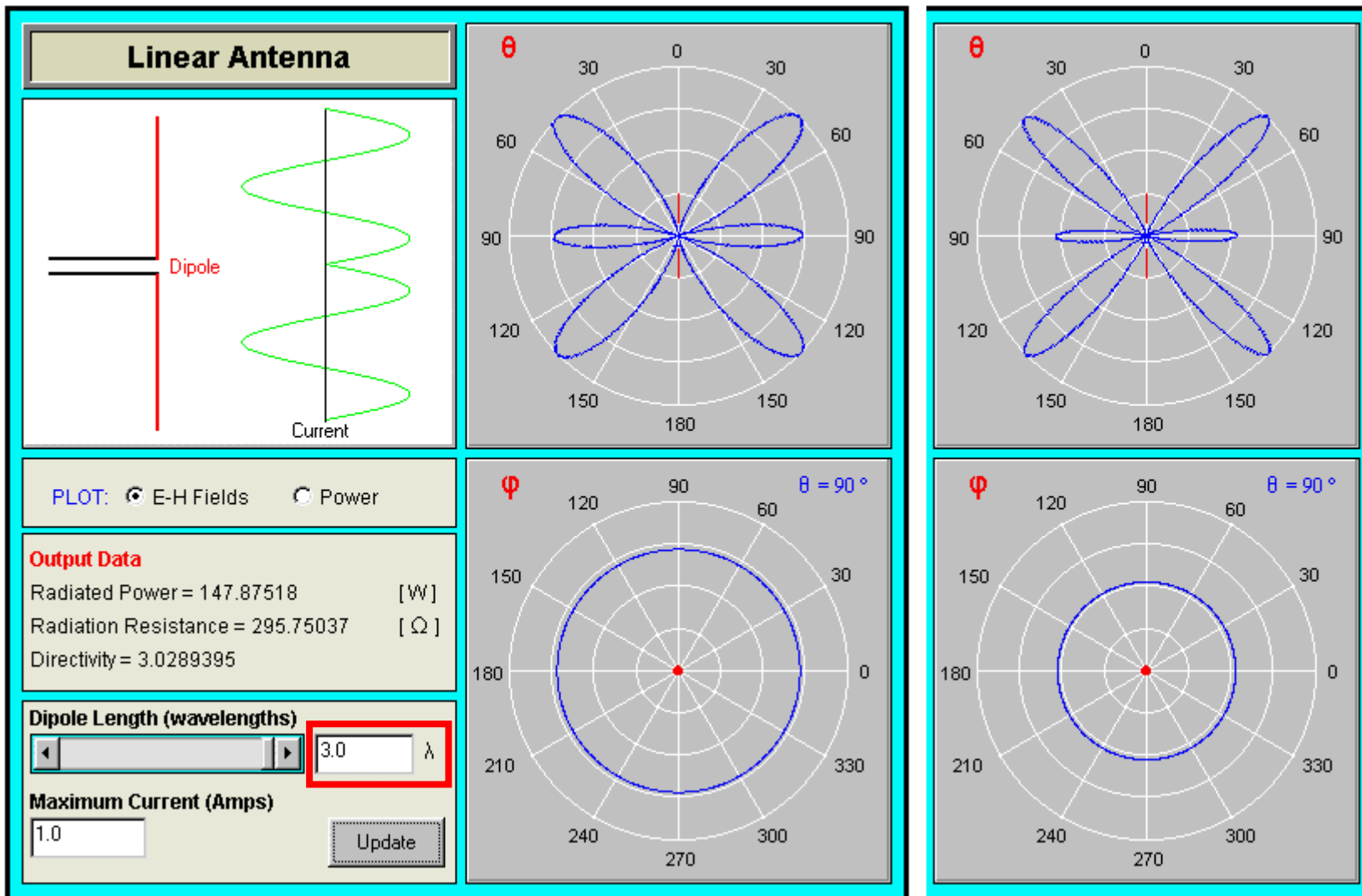






Radiation Pattern for E and H

Power Radiation Pattern



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