



Half-wavelength dipole

This is a classical and widely used thin wire antenna: $l = \lambda / 2$.

The far field of this dipole is obtained as

$$E_{\theta} = j\eta I_0 \cdot \frac{e^{-j\beta r}}{2\pi r} \cdot \left[\frac{\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos \theta\right)}{\sin \theta} \right]$$

In a similar manner, or by using the established relationship between the E_{θ} and H_{ϕ} in the far field, the total H_{ϕ} component can be written as

$$H_{\phi} = jI_0 \cdot \frac{e^{-j\beta r}}{2\pi r} \cdot \left[\frac{\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos \theta\right)}{\sin \theta} \right]$$

Radiated power density:

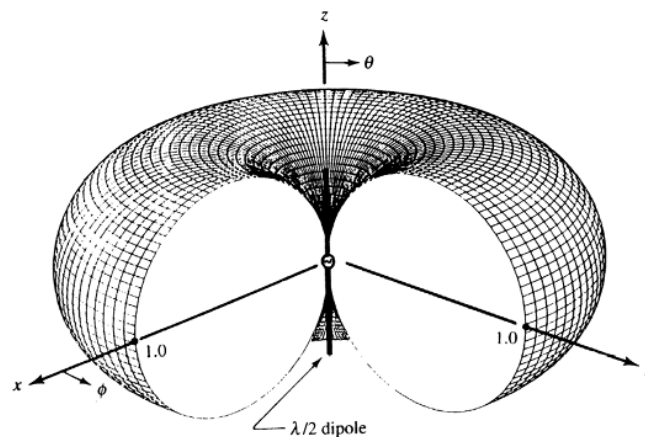
$$P = \frac{1}{2\eta} |E_{\theta}|^2 = \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi^2 r^2} \cdot \left[\frac{\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos \theta\right)}{\sin \theta} \right]^2 \approx \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi^2 r^2} \cdot \sin^3 \theta$$

Radiation intensity:

$$U(\theta, \varphi) = \frac{r^2}{2\eta} |\mathbf{E}|^2$$

$$U(\theta, \varphi) = r^2 P = \frac{r^2}{2\eta} |E_{\theta}|^2 \approx \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi^2} \cdot \sin^3 \theta$$

3-D power pattern (not in dB) of the half-wavelength dipole:





Radiated power:

The radiated power of the half-wavelength dipole is a special case of the integral mentioned in previous lecture:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi &= \oiint \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \mathbf{P} \cdot r^2 \sin \theta \, d\theta d\phi. \\ \Pi &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi^2 r^2} \cdot \left[\frac{\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos \theta\right)}{\sin \theta} \right]^2 \cdot r^2 \sin \theta \, d\theta d\phi. \\ \Pi &= \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{4\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\left[\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos \theta\right) \right]^2}{\sin \theta} \cdot d\theta = \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi} \underbrace{\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1 - \cos y}{y} \cdot dy}_{\kappa} \\ \Pi &= \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi} \kappa \end{aligned}$$

$$\kappa = 0.5772 + \ln(2\pi) - c_i(2\pi) \approx 2.435$$

$$\Pi = \eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi} \cdot 2.435 = 36.525 \cdot |I_0|^2$$

Radiation resistance:

$$R_r = \frac{2\Pi}{|I_0|^2} \approx 73\Omega$$

Directivity:

$$D_{max} = 4\pi \frac{U_{max}}{\Pi} = 4\pi \frac{\eta \cdot \frac{|I_0|^2}{8\pi^2}}{36.525 \cdot |I_0|^2} = \frac{60}{36.525} = 1.643$$

Maximum effective area:

$$A_e = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi} D_{max} = 0.13\lambda^2$$

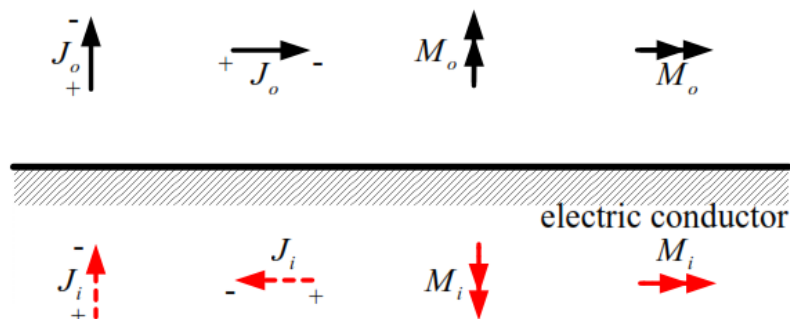
Input resistance:

Since $l = \lambda/2$.

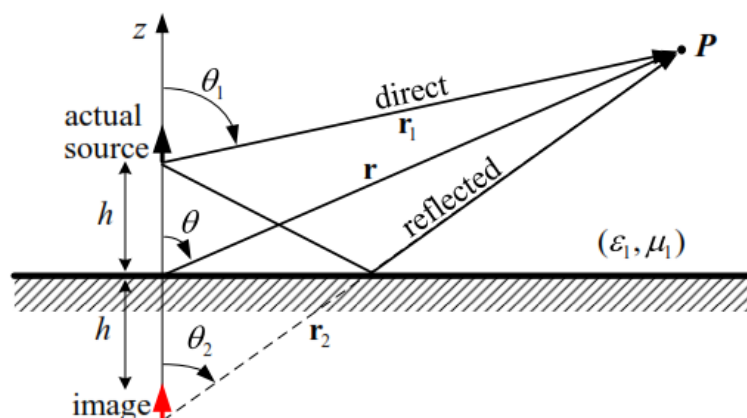
$$R_r = R_{in} \approx 73\Omega$$

The imaginary part of the input impedance is approximately $\approx +j42.5\Omega$

Method of images



Vertical electric current element above perfect conductor



The field at the observation point P is a superposition of the fields of the actual source and the image source, both radiating in a homogeneous medium of constitutive parameters (ϵ_1, μ_1) . The actual source is a current element $(I_0 \Delta l)$ (infinitesimal dipole).

$$E_{\theta}^d = j\eta \frac{\beta(I_0 \Delta l) e^{-j\beta r_1}}{4\pi r_1} \sin \theta_1$$

$$E_{\theta}^r = j\eta \frac{\beta(I_0 \Delta l) e^{-j\beta r_2}}{4\pi r_2} \sin \theta_2$$

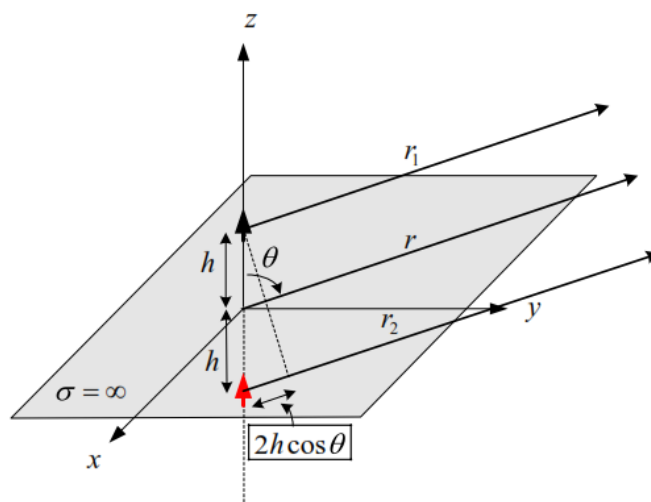
Expressing the distances r_1 and r_2 in term of r and h (using the cosine theorem) gives

$$r_1 = \sqrt{r^2 + h^2 - 2rh \cos \theta}$$

$$r_2 = \sqrt{r^2 + h^2 - 2rh \cos(\pi - \theta)}$$

We make use of the binomial expansions of r_1 and r_2 to approximate the amplitude and the phase terms, which simplify the evaluation of the total far field and the VP integral. For the amplitude term,

$$\frac{1}{r_1} \approx \frac{1}{r_2} \approx \frac{1}{r}$$



For the phase term, we use the second-order approximation (see also the geometrical interpretation above),

$$r_1 \approx r - h \cos \theta$$

$$r_2 \approx r + h \cos \theta$$

The total electrical far field is

$$E_\theta = E_\theta^d + E_\theta^r$$

$$E_\theta = j\eta \frac{\beta(I_0 \Delta l)}{4\pi r} \sin \theta \left[e^{-j\beta(r-h \cos \theta)} + e^{-j\beta(r+h \cos \theta)} \right]$$

$E_\theta = \underbrace{j\eta \frac{\beta(I_0 \Delta l)}{4\pi r}}_{g(\theta)} \sin \theta \underbrace{[2 \cos(\beta h \cos \theta)]}_{f(\theta)}, \quad z \geq 0$
$E_\theta = 0, \quad z < 0$

We note that the far-field expression can be again decomposed into two factors: the field of the elementary source $g(\theta)$ and the pattern factor $f(\theta)$ (also array factor).



The normalized power pattern is

$$\bar{U} = [\sin \theta \cdot \cos(\beta h \cos \theta)]^2$$

Total radiated power:

$$\Pi = \oiint \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \mathbf{P} \cdot r^2 \sin \theta \, d\theta d\phi.$$

$$\Pi = \eta \beta^2 (I_0 \Delta l)^2 \int_0^{\pi/2} [\sin \theta \cdot \cos(\beta h \cos \theta)]^2 \cdot d\theta.$$

$$\Pi = \pi \eta \left(\frac{I_0 \Delta l}{\lambda} \right)^2 \left[\frac{1}{3} - \frac{\cos(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^2} + \frac{\sin(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^3} \right]$$

- As $h\beta \rightarrow 0$, the radiated power of the vertical dipole above ground approaches twice the value of the radiated power of a dipole of the same length in free space.
- As $h\beta \rightarrow \infty$, the radiated power of both dipoles becomes the same.

That's mean:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[-\frac{\cos(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^2} + \frac{\sin(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^3} \right] = \frac{1}{3},$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{\cos(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^2} + \frac{\sin(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^3} \right] = 0,$$

Radiation resistance:

$$R_r = \frac{2\Pi}{|I_0|^2} = 2\pi\eta \left(\frac{\Delta l}{\lambda} \right)^2 \left[\frac{1}{3} - \frac{\cos(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^2} + \frac{\sin(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^3} \right]$$

- As $h\beta \rightarrow 0$, the radiation resistance of the vertical dipole above ground approaches twice the value of the radiation resistance of a dipole of the same length in free space:

$$R_r^{vdp} = 2R_r^{dp} \text{ when } \beta h = 0$$

- As $h\beta \rightarrow \infty$, the radiation resistance of both dipoles becomes the same.



Radiation intensity:

$$U(\theta, \varphi) = r^2 P = \frac{r^2}{2\eta} |E_\theta|^2 = \frac{\eta}{2} \left(\frac{I_0 \Delta l}{\lambda} \right)^2 [\sin^2 \theta \cdot \cos^2(\beta h \cos \theta)]$$

The maximum value of radiation intensity occurs at $\theta = \pi/2$:

$$U_{max} = \frac{\eta}{2} \left(\frac{I_0 \Delta l}{\lambda} \right)^2$$

This value is 4 times greater than U_{max} of a free space dipole of the same length.

Maximum directivity:

$$D_{max} = 4\pi \frac{U_{max}}{\Pi} = \frac{2}{\frac{1}{3} - \frac{\cos(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^2} + \frac{\sin(2\beta h)}{(2\beta h)^3}}$$

If $h\beta = 0$, $D_{max} = 3$, which is twice the maximum directivity of a free-space current element ($D_{max}^{id} = 1.5$).

The maximum of D_{max} as a function of the height h occurs when $h\beta = 2.881$ ($h = 0.4585 \lambda$). Then, $D_{max} = 6.566$ at $h\beta = 2.881$.



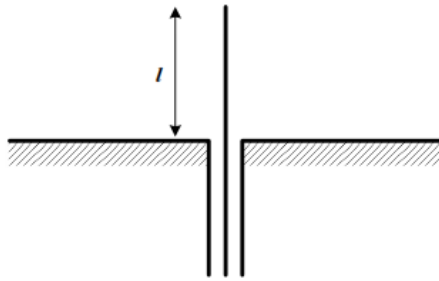
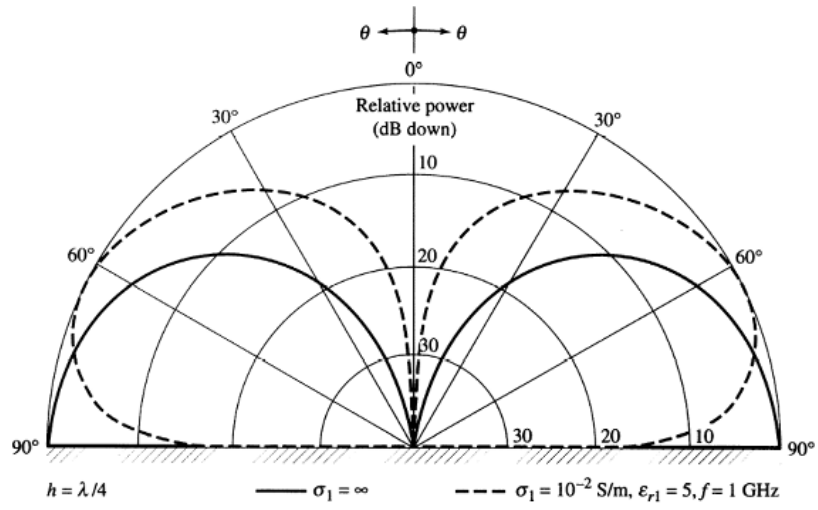
Monopoles

A monopole is a dipole that has been divided into half at its center where it is fed against a ground plane. It is normally $\lambda / 4$ long (a *quarter wavelength monopole*), but it might be shorter. Then, the monopole is a *small monopole* whose counterpart is the *small dipole*. Its current has linear distribution with its maximum at the feed point and its null at the end.

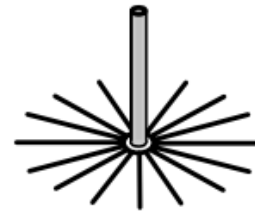
The vertical monopole is extensively used for AM broadcasting ($f = 500$ to 1500 kHz, $\lambda = 200$ to 600 m), because it is the shortest most efficient antenna at these frequencies as well as because vertically polarized waves suffer less attenuation at close-to-ground propagation. Vertical monopoles are widely used as base-station antennas in mobile communications, too.

Monopoles at base stations and radiobroadcast stations are supported by towers and guy wires. The guy wires must be separated into short enough ($\leq \lambda / 8$) pieces insulated from each other to suppress any parasitic currents.

Special care is taken when grounding the monopole. Usually, multiple radial wire rods, each 0.25 – 0.35λ long, are buried at the monopole base in the ground to simulate a perfect ground plane, so that the pattern approximates closely the theoretical one, i.e., the pattern of the $\lambda/2$ -dipole. Losses in the ground plane cause undesirable deformation of the pattern as shown below (infinitesimal dipole above an imperfect ground plane).



Monopole fed against a large solid ground plane



Practical monopole with radial wires to simulate perfect ground



Several important conclusions follow from the image theory and the above discussion:

- The field distribution in the upper half-space is the same as that of the respective free-space dipole.
- The currents and charges on a monopole are the same as on the upper half of its dipole counterpart but the terminal voltage is only half that of the dipole.
- The input impedance of a monopole is therefore only half that of the respective dipole:

$$Z_{in}^{mp} = \frac{1}{2} Z_{in}^{dp}$$

- The total radiated power of a monopole is half the power radiated by its dipole counterpart since it radiates in half-space (but its field is the same). As a result, the beam solid angle of the monopole is half that of the respective dipole and its directivity is twice the directivity of the dipole:

$$D_{max}^{mp} = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega_A^{mp}} = \frac{4\pi}{\frac{1}{2}\Omega_A^{dp}} = 2D_{max}^{dp}$$



The quarter-wavelength monopole:

This is a straight wire of length $l = \lambda / 4$ mounted over a ground plane. From the discussion above, it can be expected that the quarter-wavelength monopole is very similar to the half-wavelength dipole (in the hemisphere above the ground plane).

- Its radiation pattern is the same as that of a free-space $\lambda/2$ -dipole, but it is non-zero only for $0^\circ < \theta \leq 90^\circ$ (above ground).
- The field expressions are the same as those of the $\lambda/2$ -dipole.
- The radiated power of the $\lambda/4$ -monopole is half that of the $\lambda/2$ -dipole.
- The radiation resistance of the $\lambda/4$ -monopole is half that of the $\lambda/2$ -dipole:

$$Z_{in}^{mp} = \frac{1}{2} Z_{in}^{dp} = 0.5(73 + j42.5) = 36.5 + j21.25, \Omega$$

- The directivity of the $\lambda/4$ -monopole is:

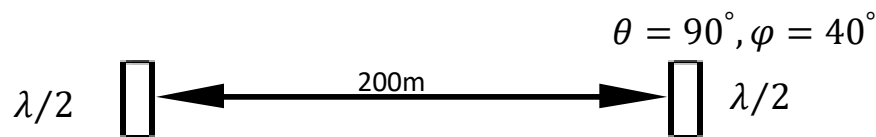
$$D_{max}^{mp} = 2D_{max}^{dp} = 2 * 1.643 = 3.286$$



Example:

A $\lambda/2$ dipole situated with its center at the origin radiates a time-averaged power of 600w at a frequency of 300 MHz. A second $\lambda/2$ dipole is placed with its center at a point $P(r, \theta, \varphi)$, where $r = 200m$, $\theta = 90^\circ$, $\varphi = 40^\circ$. It is oriented so that its axis is parallel to that of the transmitting antenna. what is the available power at the terminals of the second (receiving) dipole?

Solution:



$$P_r = P_t e_t e_r \left(\frac{\lambda}{4\pi R} \right)^2 D_t(\theta_t, \varphi_t) D_r(\theta_r, \varphi_r)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{300 \times 10^6} = 1m$$

$$r_{far\ field} = \frac{2D^2}{\lambda} = \frac{2\left(\frac{\lambda}{2}\right)^2}{\lambda} = \frac{\lambda}{2} = 0.5m$$

$$r_{far\ field} \ll 200m$$

For lossless antenna $D_t=G_t$ and $D_r=G_r$

For half wave dipole $D_{max}=1.643$

$$P_r = P_t \left(\frac{\lambda}{4\pi R} \right)^2 D_t D_r = 600 * \left(\frac{1}{4\pi \times 200} \right)^2 \times 1.643 \times 1.643 = 0.256mw$$