

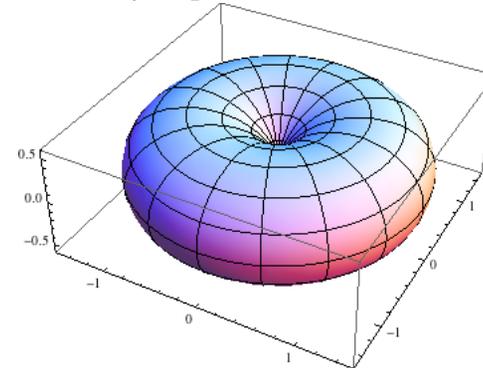
# 10 Antenna gain, beam pattern, directivity

- A dipole antenna (or a closely related monopole to be studied in Lecture 18) is a “near perfect” radiator for purposes of “broadcasting” — that is, sending waves of equal amplitudes in all directions to reach out multiple targets or receivers.
- However dipole is a poor choice when the objective is to radiate the power  $P_{rad}$  in a specific direction (i.e., towards a specific receiver), as in
  - **communication** with deep space probes or orbiting satellites, or with
  - **radar beacons** where the objective is to determine the direction of a moving target.

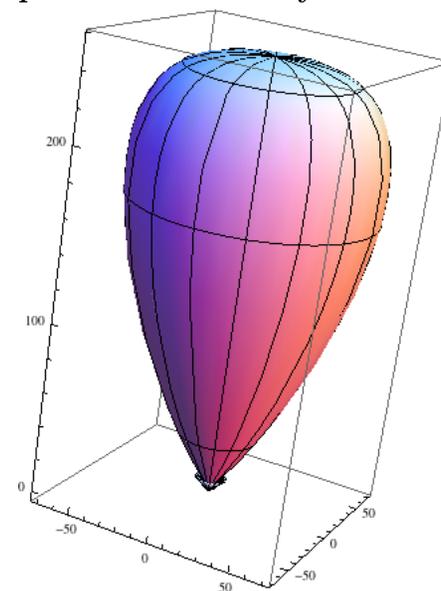
In such applications we need **high-gain** and **directive** antennas, as opposed to low-gain and non-directive antennas such as a single dipole.

- Qualitatively speaking, gain and directivity of an antenna measures its ability to confine its radiated wave fields within a narrow field of view called the **antenna beam** or **beam pattern**.
  - when a narrow antenna beam is achieved, and all the radiated power  $P_{rad}$  of the antenna is conveyed through this beam, the power density of the waves is naturally high within the beam.

Beam pattern plot of low directivity dipole antenna:



A higher directivity beam pattern of an array antenna



*Arrays* of dipoles can serve as high-gain antennas needed in beaming applications as we will learn in the next lecture.

In this lecture we will focus on the definition of antenna gain and directivity as well as the related concept of beam solid angle.

- Consider an antenna located at the origin with an input current of  $I_o$ , radiation resistance  $R_{rad}$ , and a radiated power

$$P_{rad} = \frac{1}{2}|I_o|^2 R_{rad} \text{ Watts.}$$

What would be the time-average Poynting magnitude  $|\langle \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle|$ , i.e., the power density in Watts/m<sup>2</sup> of the radiation fields at a location  $\mathbf{r} = (r, \theta, \phi)$  a distance  $r$  away from the antenna?

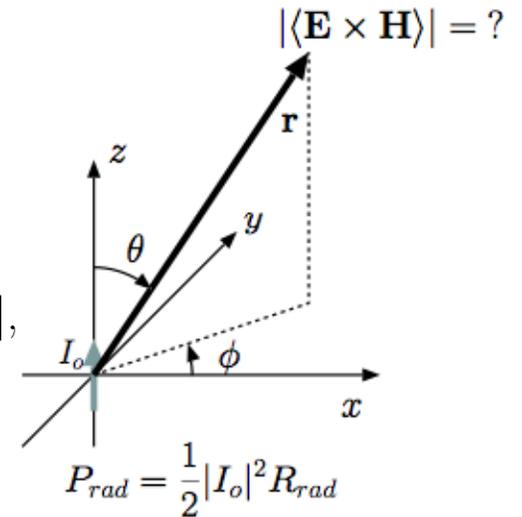
**Answer:**

- If the antenna were an **isotropic radiator** then we would have a **power density** of

$$|\langle \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle| = \frac{P_{rad}}{4\pi r^2};$$

however, no real antenna is an isotropic radiator, and thus the correct answer can be formally cast as

$$|\langle \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle| = \frac{P_{rad}}{4\pi r^2} G(\theta, \phi)$$



Power density of a radiating antenna in the far field

in terms of an **antenna gain** (over isotropic radiator)

$$G(\theta, \phi) \equiv \frac{|\langle \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle|}{\frac{P_{rad}}{4\pi r^2}},$$

to be determined.

Clearly, gain  $G(\theta, \phi)$  is the ratio of the radiated average power density of an antenna to that of an **isotropic radiator** (hypothetical perfect broadcasting antenna) radiating the same average power  $P_{rad}$ .

- According to this definition, the solid angle integral of gain  $G(\theta, \phi)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \int d\Omega G(\theta, \phi) &\equiv \frac{4\pi \int d\Omega r^2 |\langle \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle|}{P_{rad}} \\ &= \frac{4\pi \oint \langle \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle \cdot d\mathbf{S}}{P_{rad}} = 4\pi, \text{ a fixed value.} \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$G(\theta, \phi) \propto |\langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} \rangle| \propto |\ell \sin \theta|^2,$$

we can write

$$G(\theta, \phi) = K |\ell \sin \theta|^2$$

in terms of a proportionality constant  $K$ , which is subsequently identified as

$$K = \frac{4\pi}{\int d\Omega |\ell \sin \theta|^2} \text{ after applying the constraint } \int d\Omega G(\theta, \phi) = 4\pi.$$

Thus we obtain a general gain formula

$$G(\theta, \phi) = \frac{4\pi |\ell \sin \theta|^2}{\int d\Omega |\ell \sin \theta|^2}$$

applicable to all antennas for which the foreshortened effective length  $\ell \sin \theta$  is known.

- For an arbitrary antenna, gain calculation can be complicated because of the solid angle integral in the denominator in  $G(\theta, \phi)$  formula.

However, for a short dipole with  $\ell = L/2$  the calculation is simple and leads to (in case of  $\hat{z}$ -polarization)

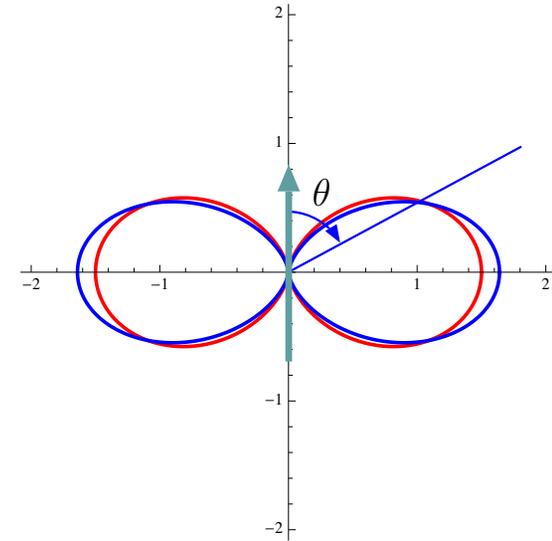
$$G(\theta, \phi) = \frac{4\pi |\sin \theta|^2}{\int d\Omega |\sin \theta|^2} = \frac{4\pi |\sin \theta|^2}{2\pi \frac{4}{3}} = \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 \theta.$$

For a half-wave dipole it works out that

$$G(\theta, \phi) \approx 1.64 \frac{\cos^2(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos \theta)}{\sin^2 \theta}$$

with a maximum value of 1.64 at  $\theta = 90^\circ$ .

- Having maximum gains of 1.5 and 1.64, respectively, short- and half-wave-dipoles are considered to be **low-directivity** antennas.



Gain functions  $G(\theta, \phi)$  depicted on a constant  $\phi$  plane for  
 (a) short-dipole (red curve),  
 and  
 (b) half-wave dipole (blue curve).

**Directivity**  $D$  of any antenna is defined to be the maximum value of its gain  $G(\theta, \phi)$ , i.e.,

$$D = G(\theta, \phi)_{max}.$$

While the solid angle integral of  $G(\theta, \phi)$  is constrained to have a fixed value of  $4\pi$ , there is no constraint on the maximum value of  $G(\theta, \phi)$ ; therefore, it is possible to design antennas with arbitrarily large directivities  $D$  by making the antenna beam shape arbitrarily narrow.

- Note that the constraint

$$\int d\Omega G(\theta, \phi) = 4\pi$$

implies

$$D \int d\Omega \frac{G(\theta, \phi)}{G(\theta, \phi)_{max}} = 4\pi,$$

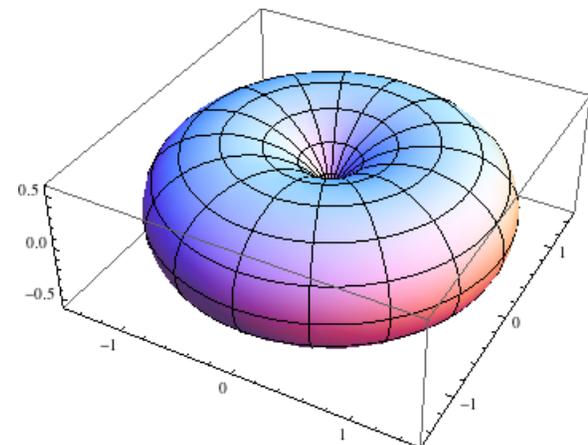
which can also be written as

$$D\Omega_o = 4\pi.$$

in terms of **beam solid angle**

$$\Omega_o \equiv \int d\Omega \frac{G(\theta, \phi)}{G(\theta, \phi)_{max}}$$

to be discussed further in this lecture.



**Gain function**

$$G(\theta, \phi) = \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 \theta$$

of *short-dipole* depicted as a 3D polar plot — gain in any direction  $(\theta, \phi)$  is proportional to the radius vector from the origin to the depicted surface.

A short-dipole has a low directivity of

$$D = 1.5$$

because it radiates with a broad beam that is isotropic in azimuth.

Antennas with high-directivity have narrow and pointy beam shapes.

- **Important result:** the product of antenna directivity  $D$  and the beam solid angle  $\Omega_o$  is fixed, specifically

$$D\Omega_o = 4\pi,$$

which implies that if  $D$  is large then  $\Omega_o$  is small and vice versa.

- A useful method to determine the antenna directivity is to use

$$D = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega_o},$$

where the solid angle

$$\Omega_o = \int d\Omega \frac{G(\theta, \phi)}{G(\theta, \phi)_{max}} = \int d\Omega \frac{|\ell \sin \theta|^2}{|\ell \sin \theta|_{max}^2}$$

can be calculated once the antenna effective length is known.

**Example 1:** For a short dipole with  $\ell = L/2$ , we have

$$\Omega_o = \int d\Omega \frac{|\sin \theta|^2}{|\sin \theta|_{max}^2} = \int d\Omega |\sin \theta|^2 = 2\pi \frac{4}{3} = \frac{8\pi}{3}.$$

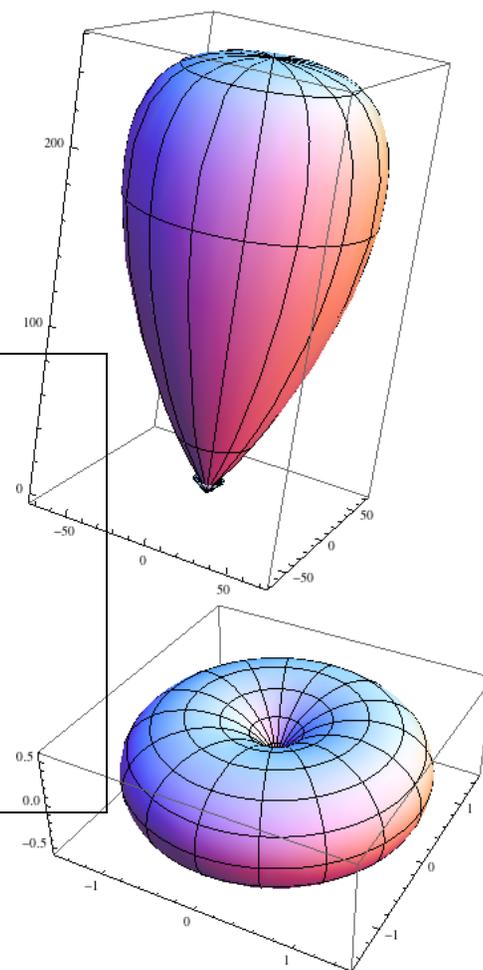
Consequently,

$$D = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega_o} = \frac{4\pi}{8\pi/3} = 1.5$$

consistent with what we learned above.

- This method of finding  $D$  from  $\Omega_o$  is very useful because there are geometrical methods for estimating  $\Omega_o$  in terms of the physical antenna size (as we will learn later on).

**Antennas with high-directivity have narrow and pointy beam shapes.**



Once  $D$  is determined, the gain of the antenna can be written as

$$G(\theta, \phi) = D \frac{|\ell \sin \theta|^2}{|\ell \sin \theta|_{max}^2}$$

without the need to perform a solid angle integral in practice.

- The beam solid angle

$$\Omega_o = \int d\Omega \frac{G(\theta, \phi)}{G(\theta, \phi)_{max}} = \int d\Omega \frac{|\ell \sin \theta|^2}{|\ell \sin \theta|_{max}^2}$$

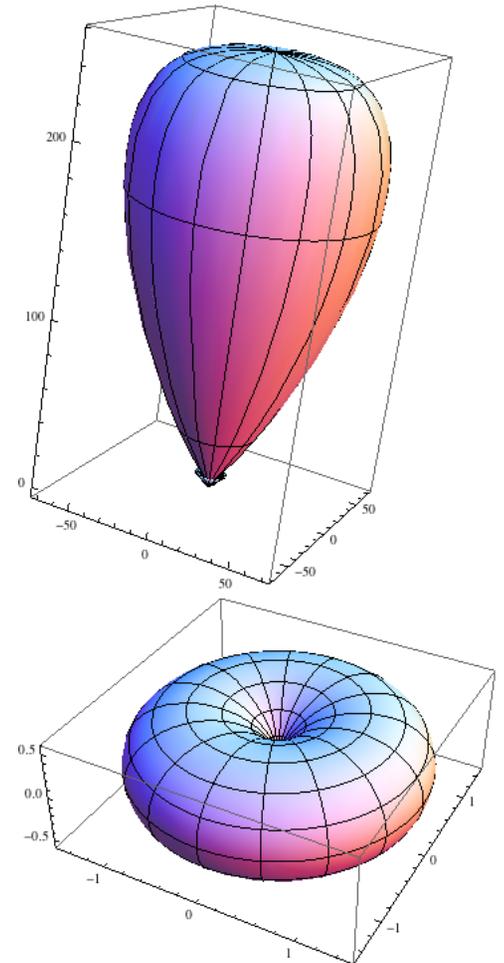
extends the concept of “angle” from 2D to 3D to describe the angular width of the antenna beam pattern. Let us examine this parameter more closely.

- Ordinary **angles** ranging from 0 to  $2\pi$  **radians** (with degree equivalents ranging from 0 to 360) correspond to **arc lengths** measured on unit-radius circles drawn on 2D planar surfaces.
- **Solid angles** ranging from 0 to  $4\pi$  **steradians** correspond to **areas of patches** or **spots** specified on unit-radius spheres defined in 3D space.
  - An **antenna-beam solid angle**

$$\Omega_o = \int d\Omega \frac{G(\theta, \phi)}{G(\theta, \phi)_{max}} = \int d\Omega \frac{|\langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} \rangle|}{|\langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} \rangle|_{max}}$$

is an **equivalent area** of a spot or a patch (centered about the direction of  $|\langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} \rangle|_{max}$ ) specified on a unit sphere surrounding

**Antennas with high-directivity have narrow and pointy beam shapes.**



the antenna, having the property that the entire power output  $P_{rad}$  of the antenna would flood this area with an equal flux density of  $|\langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} \rangle|_{max}$  if the beam were reformed into a conical shape.

- Beam shapes of high-directivity antennas with small  $\Omega_o$  can be well represented by equivalent conical beams, but such a representation is not appropriate to dipole-like broadcast antennas (see margin).

**Antennas with high-directivity have narrow and pointy beam shapes.**

**Example 2:** For a short dipole with

$$G(\theta, \phi) = \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 \theta$$

we have

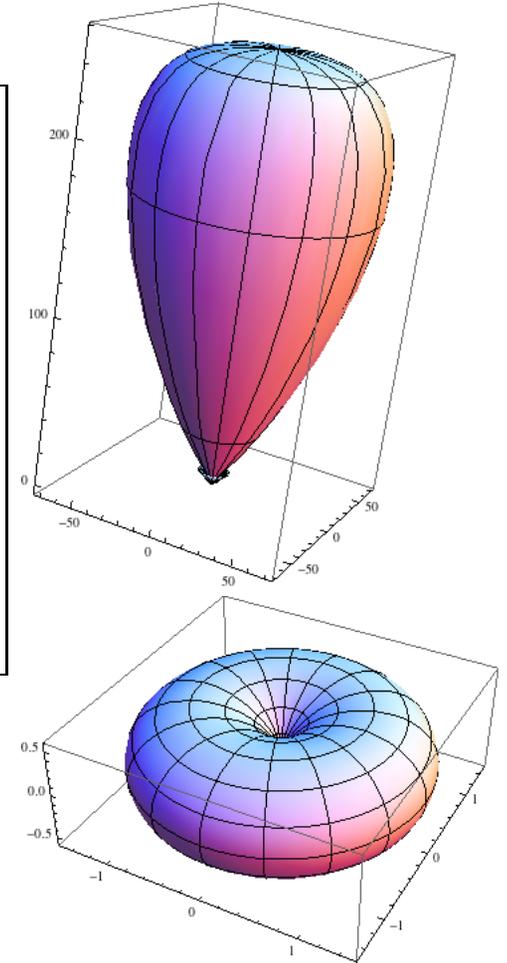
$$D = \frac{3}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \Omega_o = \int d\Omega \frac{|\sin \theta|^2}{|\sin \theta|_{max}^2} = 2\pi \frac{4}{3} = \frac{8\pi}{3}$$

as we already established in Example 1.

Consequently,

$$D = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega_o} = \frac{4\pi}{8\pi/3} = 1.5$$

consistent with what we learned above.



**Example 3:** An antenna designer comes up with a model that has a gain function specified as

$$G(\theta, \phi) = \begin{cases} D \sin^2 \theta, & 0 < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where  $D$  is the antenna directivity. Determine both  $D$  and the beam solid angle  $\Omega_o$ .

**Solution:** Since the solid angle integral of  $G(\theta, \phi)$  has to equal  $4\pi$ , it must be true that

$$\int d\Omega G(\theta, \phi) = \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} d\phi \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi/2} d\theta \sin \theta D \sin^2 \theta = 4\pi.$$

It follows that

$$2\pi D \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi/2} d\theta \sin \theta \sin^2 \theta = 4\pi \Rightarrow -D \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi/2} (d \cos \theta)(1 - \cos^2 \theta) = 2$$

from which we get

$$D = \frac{2}{\int_{\theta=\pi/2}^0 d \cos \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta)} = \frac{2}{(\cos \theta - \frac{\cos^3 \theta}{3}) \Big|_{\pi/2}^0} = \frac{2}{1 - \frac{1}{3}} = 3.$$

This is twice the directivity of the short-dipole (which makes sense because half the gain function of the short dipole is missing from the gain of this antenna).

As for the beam solid angle, it is

$$\Omega_o = \frac{4\pi}{D} = \frac{4\pi}{3},$$

which is half the solid angle of a short dipole (again for the same reason).