

The phase of the wave at a distant point is measured w.r.t. the centre. The total field is the resultant of two waves.

$$E_T = E_1 + E_2$$

$$= E_0 (e^{-j41/2} + e^{+j21/2})$$

$$= 2E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$E_T = 2E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\beta d \cos\phi}{2}\right)$$

26/02/2013

Array factor

It is the ratio of magnitude of resultant field to the magnitude of maximum field.

$$\text{Array factor } A.F = \frac{|E_T|}{|E_{\max}|}$$

where, $E_T = 2E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\beta d \cos\phi}{2}\right)$

$$E_{\max} = 2E_0$$

$$E_T = 2E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$E_T = 2E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\beta d \cos\phi}{2}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow A.F = \cos\left(\frac{\beta d \cos\phi}{2}\right) = \cos\left(\frac{\pi d \cos\phi}{\lambda}\right)$$

To find the maxima, minima and half power points in the array

	$\sin(x)$	$\cos(x)$
Maxima	$x = \pm(2k+1)\frac{\pi}{2}$	$x = \pm k\pi$
Minima (null)	$x = \pm k\pi$	$x = \pm(2k+1)\frac{\pi}{2}$
H.P.W.P	$x = \pm(2k+1)\frac{\pi}{4}$	$x = \pm(2k+1)\frac{\pi}{4}$

Q1B

(i) For a maxima

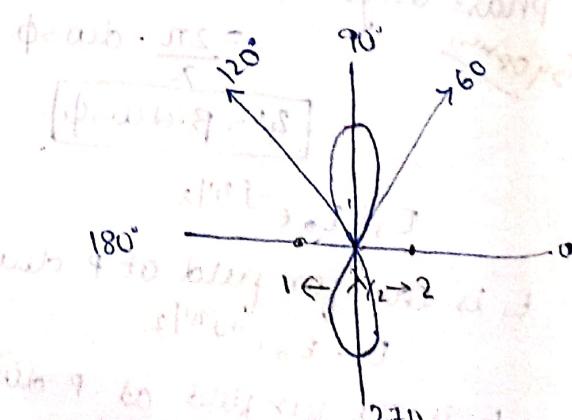
$$\frac{\pi d \cos\phi}{\lambda} = \pm k\pi$$

$$E_T = 2E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\beta d \cos\phi}{2}\right)$$

$$\beta d = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

$$\beta d = \pi$$

$$\frac{\pi d \cos\phi}{\lambda} = \pm k\pi$$



$$\frac{\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \omega_s \phi_{max} = \pm k\pi$$

$\phi_{max} = \cot(\pm \frac{k\pi}{\omega_s})$

$\omega_s \phi = 0$ for $k=0$

$\phi_{max} = \omega_s^{-1}(0)$

(ii) For maximum HPBW

$$\cos\left(\frac{\beta d \cos\phi}{2}\right) = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \omega_s \phi\right) = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}$$

Put $d = \lambda/2$, $\beta = 2\pi/\lambda$

$$\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \omega_s \phi\right) = \pm (2k+1) \frac{\pi}{4}$$

put $k=0$

$$\pi/2 \omega_s \phi = \pm \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\phi_{max} = \cos^{-1} \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= 0^\circ \text{ or } 180^\circ$$

$$\text{Hence } \phi_{HPBW} = 60^\circ \text{ or } 120^\circ$$

This is an example
of broad side
array.

(iii) For minima (null)

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \omega_s \phi_{min} = \pm (2k+1) \frac{\pi}{2}$$

Put $k=0$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \omega_s \phi_{min} = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\phi_{min} = \omega_s^{-1} (\pm 1)$$

$$\phi_{min} = 0^\circ \text{ or } 180^\circ$$

$$V_m = V_0 S_2$$

$$V_0 = \frac{1}{2} V_0 S_2$$

$$\Phi_{HPBW} = 60^\circ \text{ or } 120^\circ$$

Linear array of n isotropic points

Denote separation by d

n -element uniform linear array

at $\theta = 0^\circ$, (8) ~~$d \neq 0$~~ we get

n element broad side array

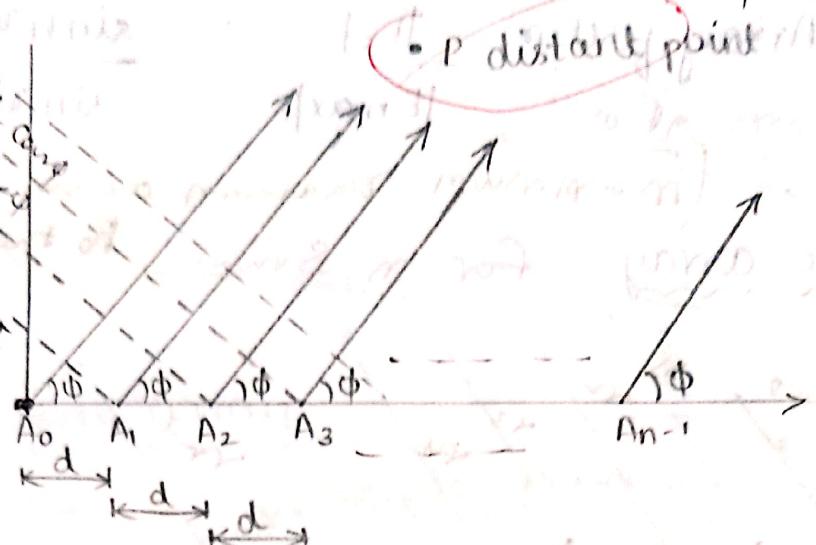
$180^\circ \text{ (8)} \Rightarrow \theta = 180^\circ$ we get

uniform end fire array

θ_2

parameters
of uniform linear array

path length difference
parallel to axis per pair
 $d\phi$.



(180°)
uniform end fire array

$$E_T = E_0 + E_0 e^{j2\pi} + E_0 e^{2j2\pi} + \dots + E_0 e^{(n-1)j2\pi}$$

$$E_T = E_0 [1 + e^{j2\pi} + e^{2j2\pi} + \dots + e^{(n-1)j2\pi}] \quad (1)$$

Multiply by $e^{j2\pi}$

$$E_T e^{j2\pi} = E_0 [e^{j2\pi} + e^{2j2\pi} + \dots + e^{jn2\pi}] \quad (2)$$

Subtract (2) from (1)

$$E_T - E_T e^{j2\pi} = E_0 [e^{j2\pi} + e^{2j2\pi} + \dots + e^{(n-1)j2\pi}] - [e^{j2\pi} + e^{2j2\pi} + \dots + e^{jn2\pi}]$$

$$E_T (1 - e^{jn2\pi}) = E_0 (1 - e^{jn2\pi})$$

$$E_T = \frac{E_0 (1 - e^{jn2\pi})}{(1 - e^{j2\pi})}$$

$$= E_0 \left[\frac{e^{jn2\pi/2} (e^{-jn2\pi/2} - e^{jn2\pi/2})}{e^{j2\pi/2} (e^{-j2\pi/2} - e^{j2\pi/2})} \right]$$

$$\text{wkt } e^{-j21} - e^{j21} = -2j \sin 21$$

$$E_1 = E_0 \left[\frac{\left(-2j \sin 21 \right) e^{nj21/2}}{\left(-2j \sin 21 \right) e^{j21/2}} \right]$$

$$E_{T_1} = E_0 \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) e^{j21\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)}$$

sin($\frac{21}{2}$) is a most
to get rid of π we do

~~$$E_1 = E_0 \left[\sin \frac{n-1}{2} \right]$$~~

cancel sin($\frac{21}{2}$) part
as it part of π and n

Phase angle of resultant field at point P

$$\theta = \left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)\psi + \left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)(\beta \cos \phi + \alpha)$$

(ii)

$$\varphi = \frac{\pi}{2} + \phi$$

$$\theta = \phi$$

It reduces to

center of array. Phase angle
 $\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)\psi$ is eliminated
and E_0 .

$$\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)\psi + \phi$$

due to

Pattern multiplication

Q2 A simple method to sketch the complicated pattern of an array just by inspection. This is a useful tool for designing an array. The total field pattern of an array of non-isotropic but similar sources is the multiplication of the individual source pattern and the pattern of an array of isotropic point sources each located at the phase center of individual source and having related amplitude and phase whereas, the total phase pattern is the addition of phase pattern of the individual sources and that of array of isotropic point sources.

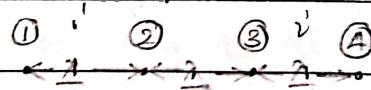
$$E = \{E_i(\theta, \phi) \times E_a(\theta, \phi)\} [E_{pi}(\theta, \phi) + E_{pa}(\theta, \phi)]$$

product of field pattern

Sum of phase pattern

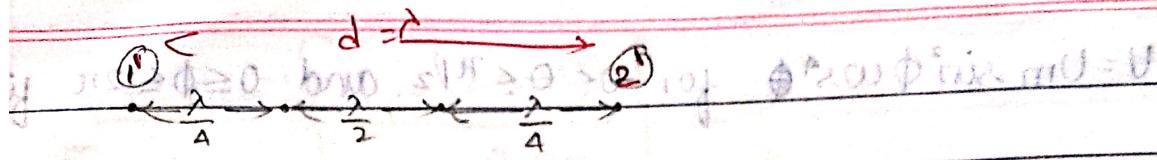
Ex:

Radiation pattern of 4-isotropic element fed in phase spaced $\lambda/2$ apart.



Field pattern of 2 isotropic point sources spaced $\lambda/2$ apart

Individual array



2 units away where one unit spaced λ

Interference null abides at bottom edge of A

Pattern of 2 isotropic point sources with spacing λ

Op resulting total sum from no principle

million sets in column due zigzag null to

pr resulting null has nothing more than lib null

to bottom edge due zigzag pattern to

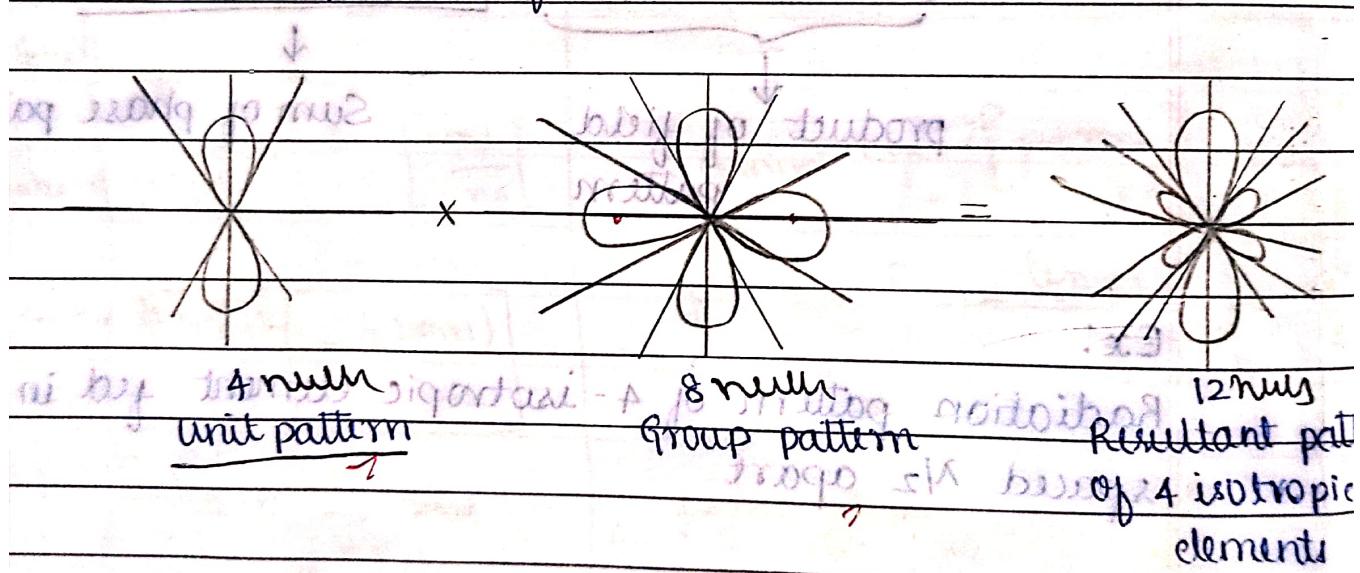
bottom point has more than lib null to result

all is resulting sum will be interference band

band around lib null to resulting bands to

worse zigzag pattern to form

Resultant pattern of 4 isotropic elements



The width of the principal lobe (width between the nulls) and the corresponding width of array pattern are same. The secondary lobes are determined from the number of nulls in the resultant pattern.

In the resultant pattern number of nulls are the sum of the nulls of individual pattern and array pattern.

Resulting zigzag is 10 resulting lobes

zigzag of 8 bands

width of 10 bands

③ Show that the directivity of the source with unidirectional radiation pattern given by $U = U_m \cos^n \theta$ can be represented as

$$D = 2(n+1)$$

$$P_T = \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} U d\Omega$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\pi} U_m \cos^n \theta \sin \theta d\phi d\theta$$

$$= U_m \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^n(\theta) \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$

$$= 2\pi U_m \int_0^{\pi/2} (\sin \theta \cos \theta)^n \cos^{n-1} \theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi U_m \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} \cos^{n-1} \theta d\theta$$

$$= U_m \pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin 2\theta \cos^{n-1} \theta d\theta$$

(28)

$$= 2U_m \pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin \theta \cos^n \theta d\theta$$

(29) (31)

$$\partial \theta = d\theta$$

$$\text{Let } \cos \theta = x \quad \downarrow$$

$$-\sin \theta d\theta = dx$$

$$\text{when } \theta = 0, x = 1$$

$$\theta = \pi/2, x = 0$$

$$(\partial \theta) s - \partial \theta t = \theta s - \theta t + q_{11} \theta$$

$$\partial Q = q_{11} \theta$$

$$P_t = 2\pi U_m \int_{-1}^0 x^n (-dx)$$

$$\phi = \text{constant} \rightarrow \phi = \text{constant}$$

$$= 2\pi U_m \left[-\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} \right]_1^0$$

$$\phi = \text{constant} \rightarrow \frac{1}{x} = \phi$$

$$= \frac{2\pi U_m}{n+1} (1^{n+1})$$

$$\frac{1}{x} = \phi$$

$$P_t = \frac{2\pi U_m}{n+1} - (1)$$

$$(\frac{1}{x}) \text{ air} = \phi$$

$$\frac{2\pi U_m}{n+1} = 4\pi U_0$$

$$\phi_A = \phi$$

$$\text{Directivity} = \frac{U_m}{U_0} = \frac{4\pi(n+1)}{2\pi}$$

$$D = 2(n+1)$$

$$\frac{4\pi(n+1)}{2\pi} = D$$

(52)

X 4(a)

Derive the expression for the field component of a short dipole starting with expression of scalar electric potential and vector magnetic potential. Also determine for field component.

A short linear conductor is often called a short dipole.

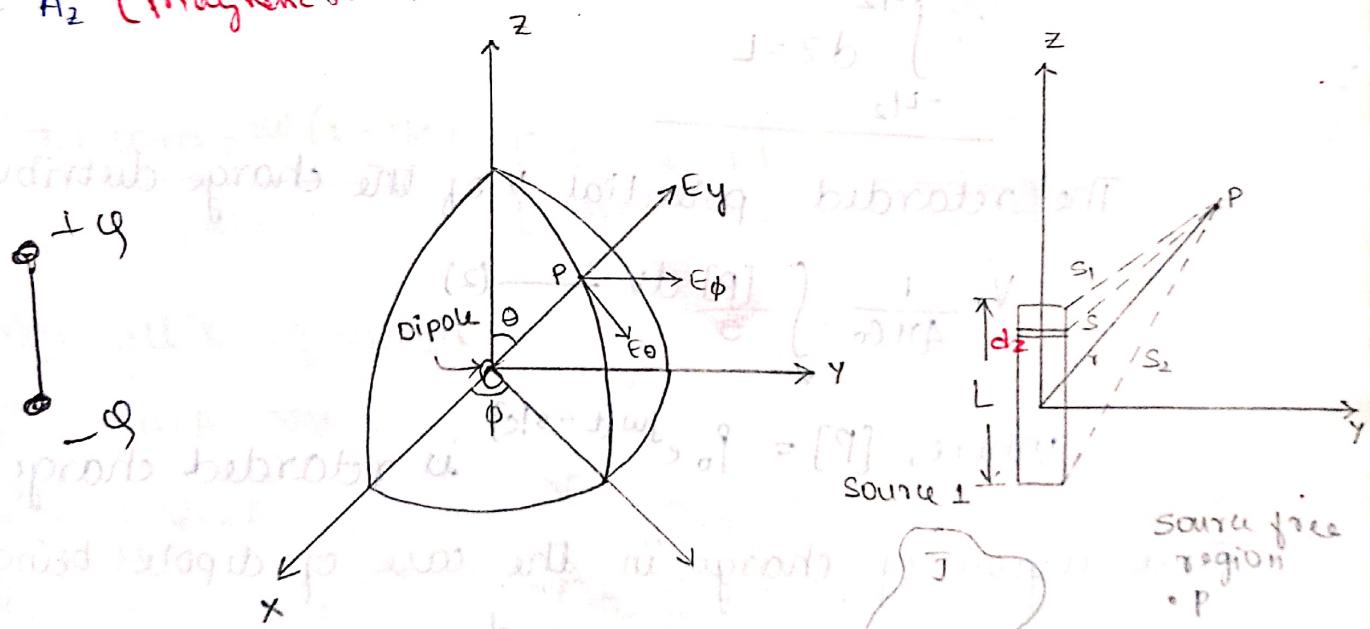
The length L is very short compared to wavelength. The current I along the entire length is assumed to be uniform.

Consider a dipole of length L placed along the z -axis with its centre at the origin. The electric and magnetic field due to dipole can be expressed in terms of vector and scalar potential.

Since, we are interested in finding the far field we must use retarded potential, i.e., expressions involving $[t - \frac{r}{c}]$.

For a short dipole shown in the figure, the retarded vector potential of the electric current has only one component

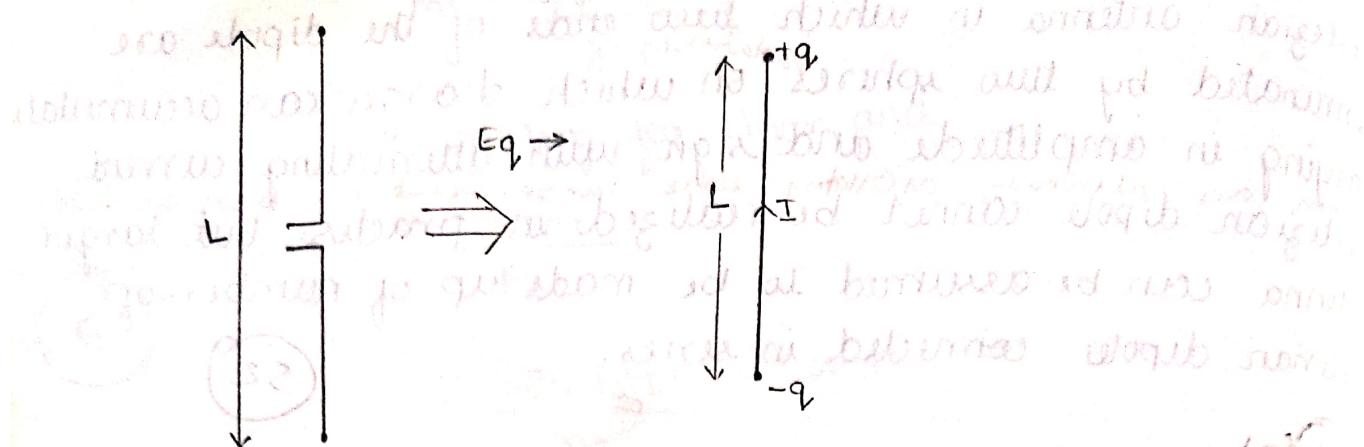
namely \vec{A}_z (magnetic field)



Short dipole

$$L \ll \lambda$$

$$\frac{L \ll \lambda}{10} = 0.1\lambda$$



~~Electric dipole moment~~ ~~is proportional to~~ ~~length L~~ ~~current I~~ ~~and~~ ~~charge q~~ ~~in~~ ~~opposite~~ ~~sense~~ ~~at~~ ~~end~~ ~~points~~ ~~of~~ ~~dipole~~ ~~length~~ ~~L~~ ~~is~~ ~~proportional~~ ~~to~~ ~~current~~ ~~I~~ ~~and~~ ~~length~~ ~~L~~ ~~is~~ ~~proportional~~ ~~to~~ ~~charge~~ ~~q~~ ~~and~~ ~~length~~ ~~L~~

The vector potential A_z due to a dipole of length L and current I at a point r is given by
$$A_z = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} [I] dz$$

where, $[I] \rightarrow$ retarded current $I e^{jw(t-\tau/c)}$

$\tau = \frac{r}{c}$, where, r is the distance from the dipole to the point r .

Since $r \gg L$, $\tau \gg L/c$, so we can ignore the retardation effect.

$A_z = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} I L e^{jw(t-\tau/c)} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dz$

$\therefore \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dz = L$

The retarded potential V of the charge distribution

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{[P]}{r} dv \quad (2)$$

where, $[P] = \rho_0 e^{jw(t-\tau/c)}$ is retarded charge density

Since region of charge in the case of dipole being considered to the points at the end.

Equation (2) reduces to

$$V = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{|q_1|}{s_1} - \frac{|q_1|}{s_2} \right] \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

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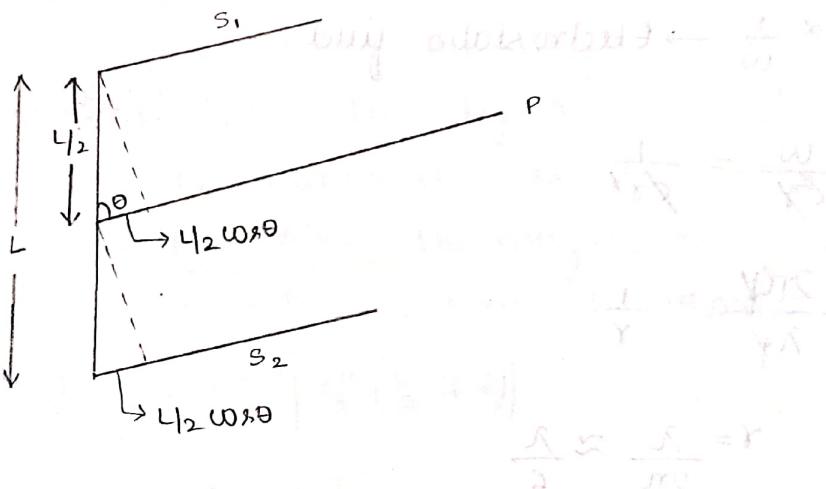
But we have

$$[q] = \int [I] dt \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$= I_0 \int e^{j\omega(t-s_1c)} dt$$

$$= \frac{[I]}{j\omega}$$

$$V = \frac{I_0}{4\pi\epsilon_0(j\omega)} \left[\frac{e^{j\omega(t-s_1c)}}{s_1} - \frac{e^{j\omega(t-s_2c)}}{s_2} \right]$$



From the figure,

$$s_1 = r - \frac{L}{2}\omega\theta \quad \text{(upper half circle radius is } r \text{ and arc length is } L)$$

$$s_2 = r + \frac{L}{2}\omega\theta \quad \text{(lower half circle radius is } r \text{ and arc length is } L)$$

$$V = \frac{I_0 L \omega \theta e^{j\omega(t-\theta c)}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \left[\frac{c}{j\omega r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \right] \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Maxwell's equation

$$\vec{E} = -j\omega \vec{A} - \nabla V$$

$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \times \vec{A}$$

$$A$$

$$E_\theta = \frac{I_0 L \cos \theta e^{jw(t-\gamma/c)}}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{1}{c^2 r} + \frac{1}{jw r^3} \right]$$

$$E_\phi = 0$$

$$E_\theta = \frac{I_0 L \sin \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} e^{jw(t-\gamma/c)} \left[\frac{jw}{c^2 r} + \frac{1}{c^2 r} + \frac{1}{jw r^3} \right]$$

$$H_\theta = 0 \quad H_\phi = \frac{I_0 L \sin \theta}{4\pi L} e^{jw(t-\gamma/c)} \left[\frac{1}{r^2} + \frac{jw}{c r} \right]$$

$\frac{I}{c \omega m}$ 1. $\frac{1}{r} \propto \omega \rightarrow R.F$ [Radiation field]

2. Independent of ω or $f \rightarrow$ induction field [I.F]

3. $\frac{1}{r^3} \propto \frac{1}{\omega} \rightarrow$ Electrostatic field

$$\frac{\omega}{c \lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda c f}$$

$$\frac{2\pi f}{\lambda c} = \frac{1}{r}$$

$$r = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi} \approx \frac{\lambda}{6}$$

(a) $r \ll \lambda/6$ N.F.R [Near field region]

(b) $r \gg \lambda/6$ F.F.R [Far field region]

For far field region, neglect $1/r^2$ and $1/r^3$ components

$$E_\theta = \frac{jw I_0 L \sin \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c^2 r} e^{jw(t-\gamma/c)}$$

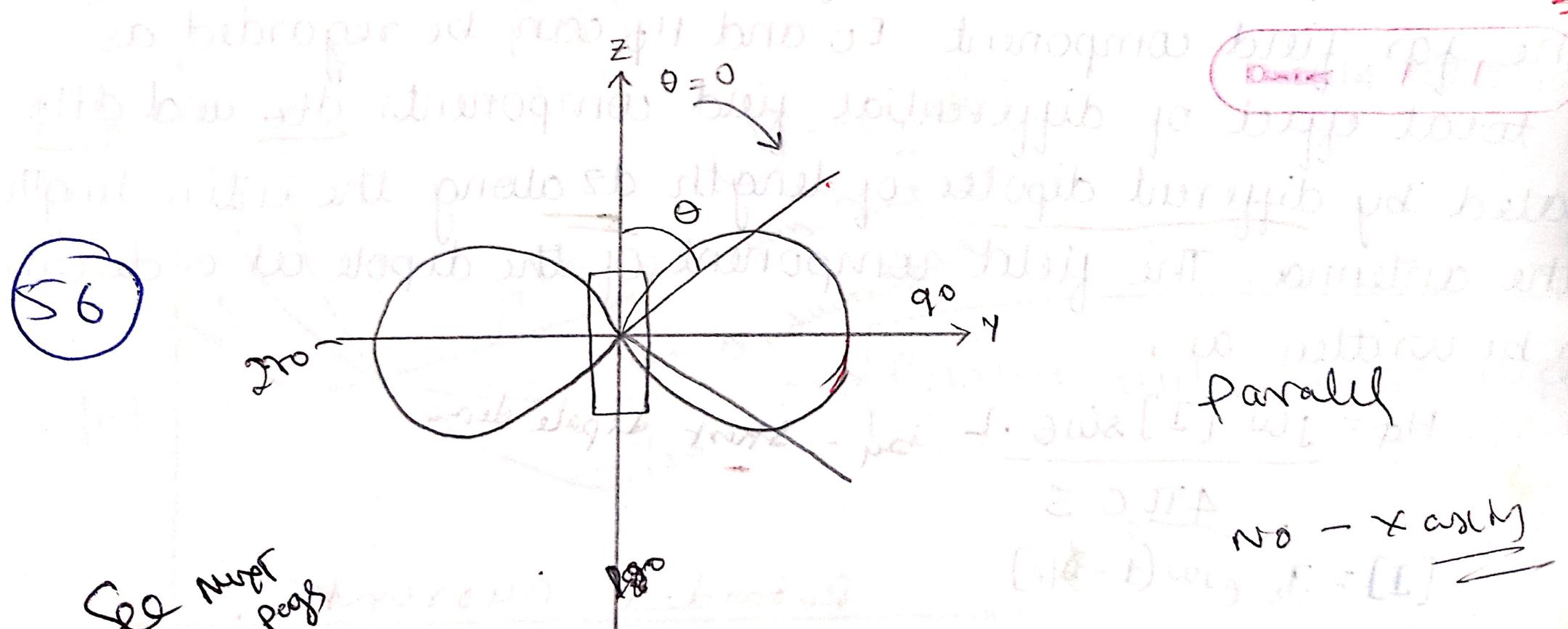
$$H_\phi = \frac{jw I_0 L \sin \theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c r} e^{jw(t-\gamma/c)}$$

$$H_r = 0, H_\theta = 0$$

E_θ and $H_\phi \propto \sin \theta$

From the above equation, E_θ and H_ϕ are in the same phase in the far field with the field pattern of lbt

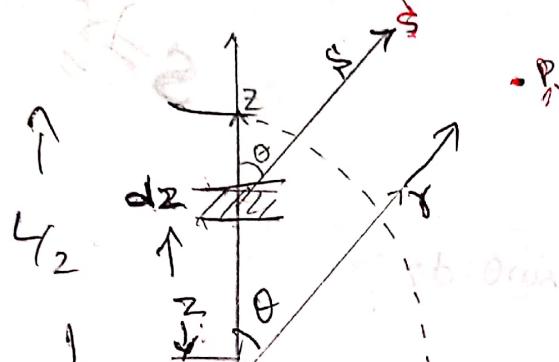
proportional to $\sin\theta$. The pattern is independent of



~~Q1(b)~~ Field due to thin linear antenna ~~why~~ ~~too~~

(A) For a thin linear antenna, a sinusoidal current distribution is assumed along the length of the antenna. The antenna is fed at the centre by a balanced two wire transmission line. The antenna is thin i.e., when the conduct or diameter is less than $\lambda/100$. The magnitude of the current at any point on the antenna could be expressed as mathematically

$$I = I_0 \sin \left[\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \left(\frac{L}{2} + z \right) \right]$$



[T] in curr. at any point of the antenna.

$$[I] = I_0 \sin \left[\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \left(\frac{L}{2} + z \right) \right] e^{j\omega [t - s/c]}$$

In this expression negative sign is used when z is positive and positive sign is used when z is negative. The value of the current at any point z on the antenna refer to a

point at a distance s is as given above.

The far field component E_0 and H_ϕ can be regarded as the total effect of differential field components dE_0 and dH_ϕ created by different dipoles of length dz along the entire length of the antenna. The field component of the dipole at a distance can be written as :

$$H_\phi = \frac{jw [I] \sin\theta \cdot L}{4\pi c s} \text{ by - short dipole form.}$$

$$[I] = I_0 e^{jw(1-\frac{s}{c})t}$$

$$H_\phi = \frac{j [I] \sin\theta \cdot L}{s \cdot 4\pi c / w}$$

Retarded current

time distance $\frac{s}{c}$ is the

interval required for the

disturbance to travel

in free space at the

velocity of light ($c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$)

(5)

$$\text{Electric field} = \frac{j [I] \sin\theta \cdot L}{s \cdot 4\pi c^2 / w}$$

$$\text{Total electric field} = \frac{j [I] \sin\theta \cdot L}{2 \cdot s \cdot \lambda}$$

$$\text{so } dH_\phi = \frac{j [I]}{2 \cdot s \cdot \lambda} \sin\theta dz$$

$$E_0 = \eta H_\phi$$

$$\eta = 120\pi$$

$$dE_0 = 120\pi dH_\phi$$

$$dE_0 = j \frac{60\pi [I] \sin\theta \cdot dz}{s \lambda}$$

(5)

The value of magnetic field H_ϕ for entire antenna is the integral of dH_ϕ over the entire length.

$$H_\phi = \int_{-L/2}^{+L/2} dH_\phi$$

At a far distance $s \gg \lambda$ the effect on the amplitude

fully value of $\int_{-L/2}^{+L/2} dH_\phi$ included; and in the re point $s = \lambda + z$ and

$$H_\phi = \frac{j [I]}{2\pi r} \left[\frac{\cos(BL(\omega_0 \theta))}{2} - \cos(BL(\frac{\omega_0 \theta}{2})) \right] \sin\theta$$

$$E_0 = \eta H_\phi = 120\pi H_\phi$$

$$E_0 = \frac{j 60 [I]}{s} \left[\cos\left(\frac{BL(\omega_0 \theta)}{2}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{BL}{2}\right) \right] \sin\theta$$

0810^u: Q(5) *

(E) ~~Q(5)~~ 900

Radiation resistance of short dipole

③ A short dipole - a short linear conductor is open called a short dipole. Length L is very short compared to the wavelength. Current I along the entire length is assumed to be uniform.

$$S_r = \vec{E} \times \vec{H}$$

$$S_r = \frac{E^2}{\eta} \text{ W/m}^2$$

Radial comp. of Poynting vector
depends on θ, ϕ

$$\text{Total power } P \text{ or } W = \int S_r \cdot ds \quad W$$

Short dipole

Substituting the value of S_r and ds

$$P \text{ or } W = \int S_r \cdot r^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$$

$$= \int \frac{E^2}{\eta} r^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$$

$dr = \sin\theta d\theta$

For a short dipole, field at a distance r is

$$W = \frac{E^2}{\eta} = \frac{30\pi I_0^2 L^2 \sin^2\theta}{\lambda^2 \epsilon_0^2}$$

Substituting

$$W = \int \frac{30\pi I_0^2 L^2 \sin^2 \theta}{\lambda^2} \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

$$= \frac{30\pi I_0^2 L^2}{\lambda^2} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \sin^3 \theta d\theta d\phi$$

(A9)

$$= \frac{30\pi I_0^2 L^2 (2\pi)}{\lambda^2} \left[-\frac{\sin^2 \theta \cos \theta}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \sin \theta \right]_0^\pi$$

$$= \frac{10}{30\pi I_0^2 L^2 (2\pi) (4\pi)} \quad \times \frac{1}{3}$$

$$W = \frac{80\pi^2 I_0^2 L^2}{\lambda^2} \quad (1)$$

$$W = I_0^2 R_R \quad (2)$$

R_R - Current density
 R_R - Radiation resistance
 R_R - Power dissipation

Equation (1) + (2) implies

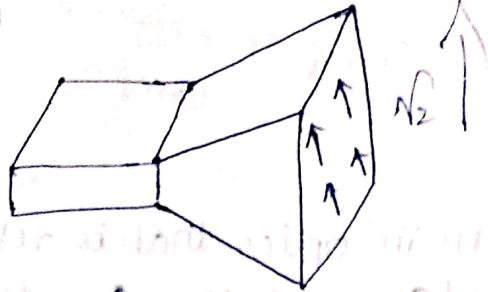
$$\frac{80\pi^2 I_0^2 L^2}{\lambda^2} = I_0^2 R_R$$

$$R_R = \frac{80\pi^2 L^2}{\lambda^2}$$

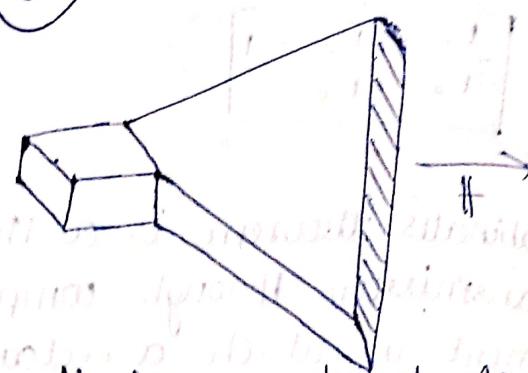
→ radiation resistance

Types - Horn antennas

(6a)



(6x)

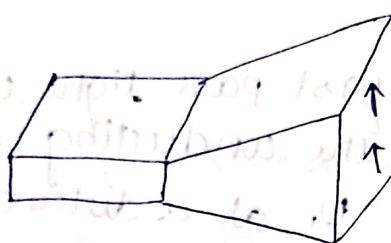


H-plane sectoral plane

Flaring in E-plane

Flaring in H-plane

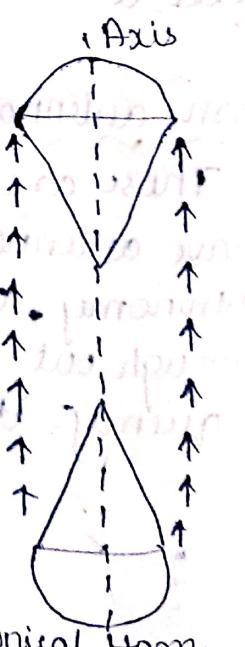
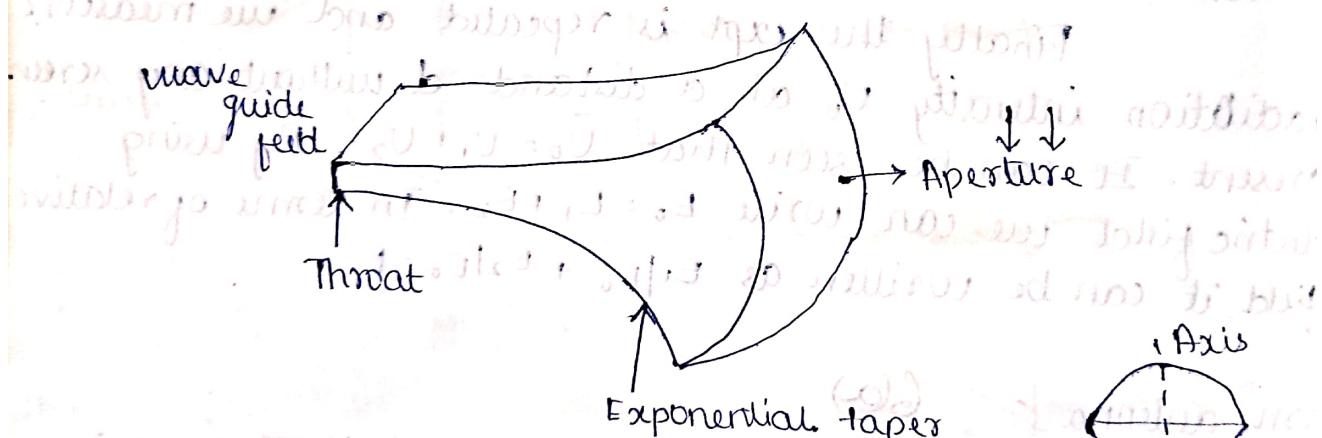
Good for side lobe cancellation if the side lobes differ in magnitude at their peaks. Good for low cross polarization.



Pyramidal horn

(E & H)

These are most widely used in wave antenna. These are considered as the aperture antenna.



Exponentially tapered conical

Biconical horn

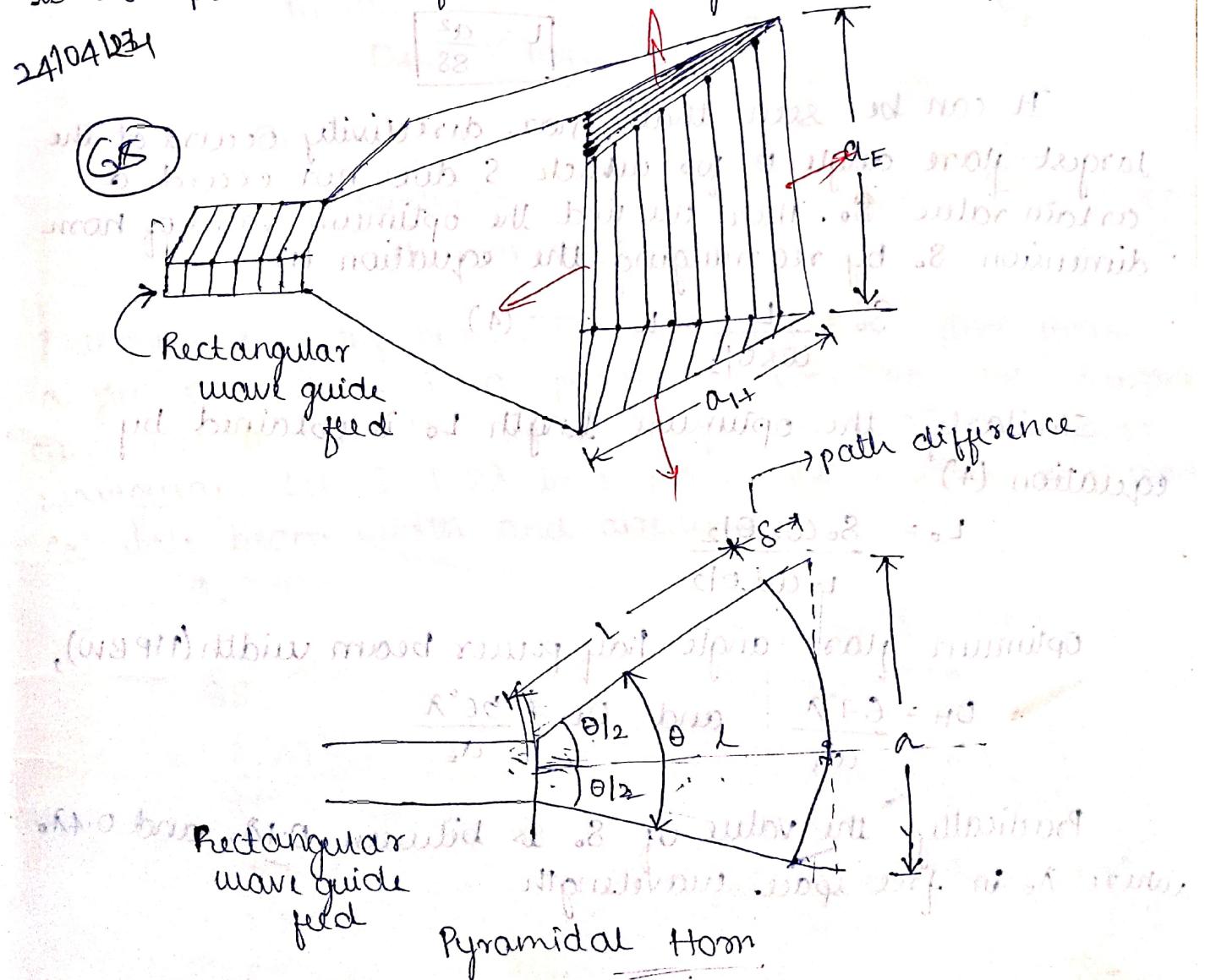
It is possible for a waveguide to radiate energy if one end is suitably excited and the other end is opened out. Only a small portion of energy is radiated. As there is a discontinuity and matching is not proper and most of the energy is reflected back. The impedance mismatch is overcome by flaring the open end of the waveguide. The flared structure is called horned antenna. In addition to matching the impedance and it reduces the SWR to an acceptable level, the flare gives good directivity, narrow bandwidth. Since there are no resonant parts the horn antenna works over a wide frequency range.

Fig will show

Fermat's principle or design of horn antenna

The field over the plane surface of the antenna (mouth of the horn) can be made everywhere in phase by shaping that surface so that all path from the source to that plane are of equal length electrically.

24/04/2021



$$\sin \theta/2 = \frac{a}{2(L+8)}$$

69

$\tan \theta/2 = \frac{a/2}{L+8} = \frac{a}{2L}$ \rightarrow (3)

where, $\theta \rightarrow$ flare angle open end

Flare angle in E-plane with $\theta = \theta/2$

$$\theta_E = 2 \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{a}{2L} \right)$$

Flare angle in H-plane with $\theta_H = 2 \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{a}{2L} \right)$

$$\theta_H = 2 \cot^{-1} \left(\frac{L+8}{L} \right)$$

From the fig,

$$L^2 + \left(\frac{a}{2} \right)^2 = (L+8)^2$$

$$L^2 + \frac{a^2}{4} = L^2 + 28L + 8^2$$

$$L = \frac{a^2}{88}$$

It can be seen that max. directivity occurs at the largest flare angle θ for which δ does not exceed a certain value θ_0 . Then we find the optimum value of horn dimension s_0 by rearranging the equation (1) ...

$$s_0 = \frac{L}{\cos \theta/2} \quad (4)$$

Similarly the optimum length L_0 is obtained by equation (4)

$$L_0 = \frac{s_0 \cos \theta/2}{1 - \cos \theta/2}$$

Optimum flare angle half power beam width (HPBW),

$$\theta_H = \frac{6.7^\circ \lambda}{a_H} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_E = \frac{56^\circ \lambda}{a_E}$$

Practically the value of s_0 is between $0.1\lambda_0$ and $0.4\lambda_0$ where λ_0 is free space wavelength

Rectangular Horn antenna

جذب.

$$D = \frac{4\pi A e}{\lambda^2} = \frac{4\pi \eta_{\text{cap}} A p}{\lambda^2}$$

$$\eta_{ap} = \frac{A_e}{A_p} = \text{aperture efficiency}$$

Re-effective aperture

Ap - physical aperture

For a rectangular horn antenna

$$\Delta p = \alpha e \cdot q$$

a_e = Eplane apperture,

$a_H = H$ plane aperture

Assume $\alpha_1 = \alpha E = \lambda$

$$\eta_{\text{ap}} = 0.6 \cdot \sqrt{A_p} = 0.6 \cdot \sqrt{1.5 A_p} = 0.6 \cdot 1.22 \cdot \sqrt{A_p}$$

In dB,

$$DdB = 10 \log_{10} \left[\frac{7.5 AP}{\lambda^2} \right]$$

Similarly for conical form

$$A_p = \pi r^2$$

r = radius of aperture

08

(Q8) Design horn with focusing right rectangular
beam width of the horn, H-plane aperture and flare free
angle θ_E and θ_H in a pyramidal horn for which E-plane
aperture is 10λ . The horn is fed with a rectangular
waveguide. Let $\delta = 0.2\lambda$ in E-plane and 0.375λ in H-plane
calculate beam width and directivity.

$$a_E = 10\lambda$$

$$L = \frac{Q_0^2}{8S}$$

$$= \frac{(10\lambda)^2}{8(0.2\lambda)}$$

$$= \frac{100\pi^2}{16\pi^2}$$

L = 62.53

Flare angle in E-plane

$$DC = 2 \cdot \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{a}{2L} \right)$$

$$= 21 \text{ cm}^{-1} \left(\frac{10\lambda}{2(62.5\text{N})} \right)$$

Flare angle in H-plane

$$\theta_H = 2 \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{L}{L+S} \right)$$

$$= 2 \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{6.5\lambda}{10\lambda + 6.5\lambda} \right) \quad \text{qA goes to R}$$

$$\theta_H = 0.218 \text{ rad} = 12.512^\circ$$

$$\theta_H = 0.183 \text{ rad} = 10.375^\circ$$

$$\text{HPBW } \theta_E = \frac{56^\circ \lambda}{a_E} = \frac{56^\circ \lambda}{10\lambda} = 5.6^\circ$$

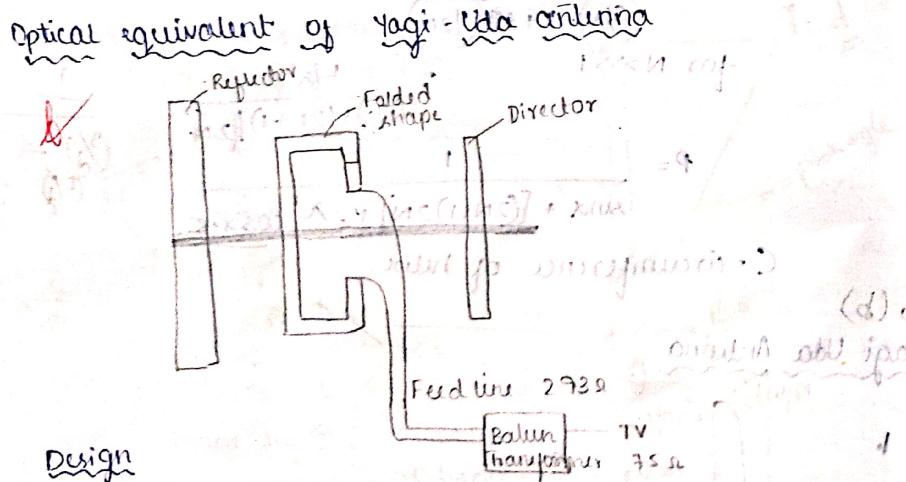
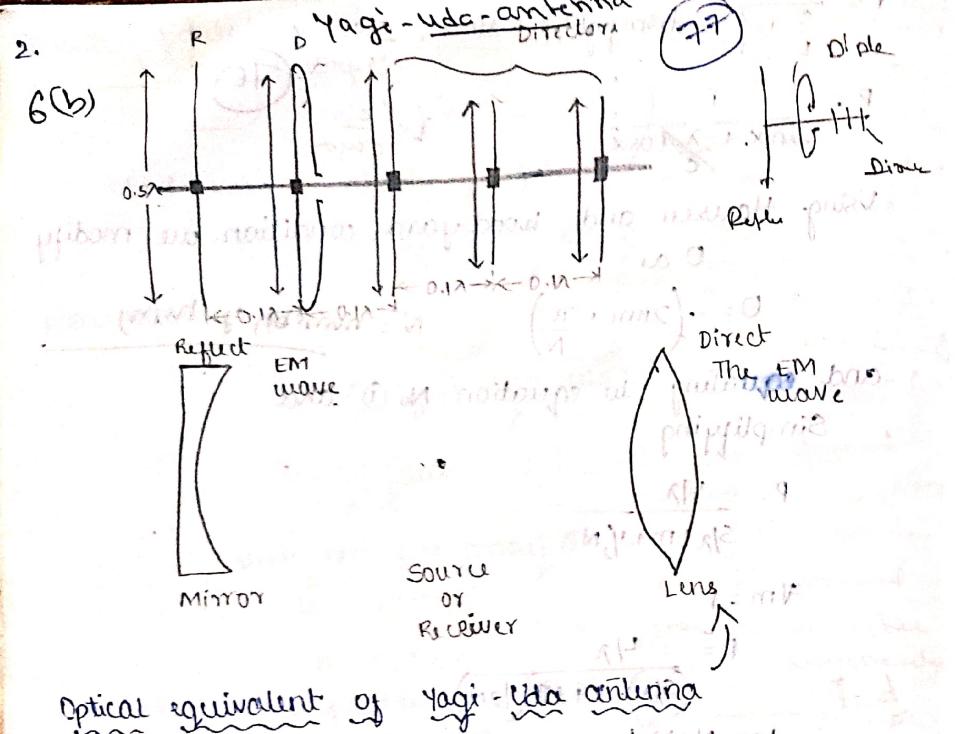
$$\theta_H = \frac{6.7\lambda}{13.7\lambda} = 4.8905^\circ$$

$$D \text{ in dB} = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{7.5 A_p}{\lambda^2} \right)$$

$$= 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{7.5 \times a_E \times a_H}{13.7 \lambda^2} \right) \quad \text{R = 30 dB}$$

$$D_p = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{7.5 \times 10\lambda \times 13.7\lambda}{\lambda^2} \right) \quad \text{R = 30 dB}$$

$$D \text{ in dB} = 30.117 \text{ dB}$$



Design

Length of active element

$$1. L_a = 0.46\lambda$$

2. Length of reflector

$$L_r = 0.475\lambda$$

3. Director length

$$L_{d1} = 0.44\lambda$$

$$L_{d2} = 0.43\lambda$$

$$L_{d3} = 0.42\lambda$$

4. Spacing between reflector and folded dipole

$$L_a = 0.46\lambda$$

$$L_r = 0.475\lambda$$

$$L_{d1} = 0.44\lambda$$

$$S_d = 0.31\lambda$$

$$D = 0.012\lambda$$

$$1.5\lambda$$

Yagi-Uda antenna is a five element system operating in the range of 40-300MHz. We find that directors and reflector elements are parasitic elements. A parasitic element is a conductor kept near the dipole such that the current gets induced in it by the field in the dipole. It has been found that when the parasitic element kept near a dipole ($\lambda/2$) of length longer than $\lambda/2$ as shown in the figure, it will act as a reflector. The longer element is found to be inductive in nature. Similarly, shorter length conductor as shown in the figure will act as a capacitive element and hence as a director. In practical situation, we need to use only one reflecting element as more number does not have any effect on the radiation pattern. However we can use more than one director element to produce a very strong directive action on the radiation. It has also been found that more than 16 elements will not have much effect on the directivity of the antenna. The typical gain of the yagi-uda antenna is 15dB.

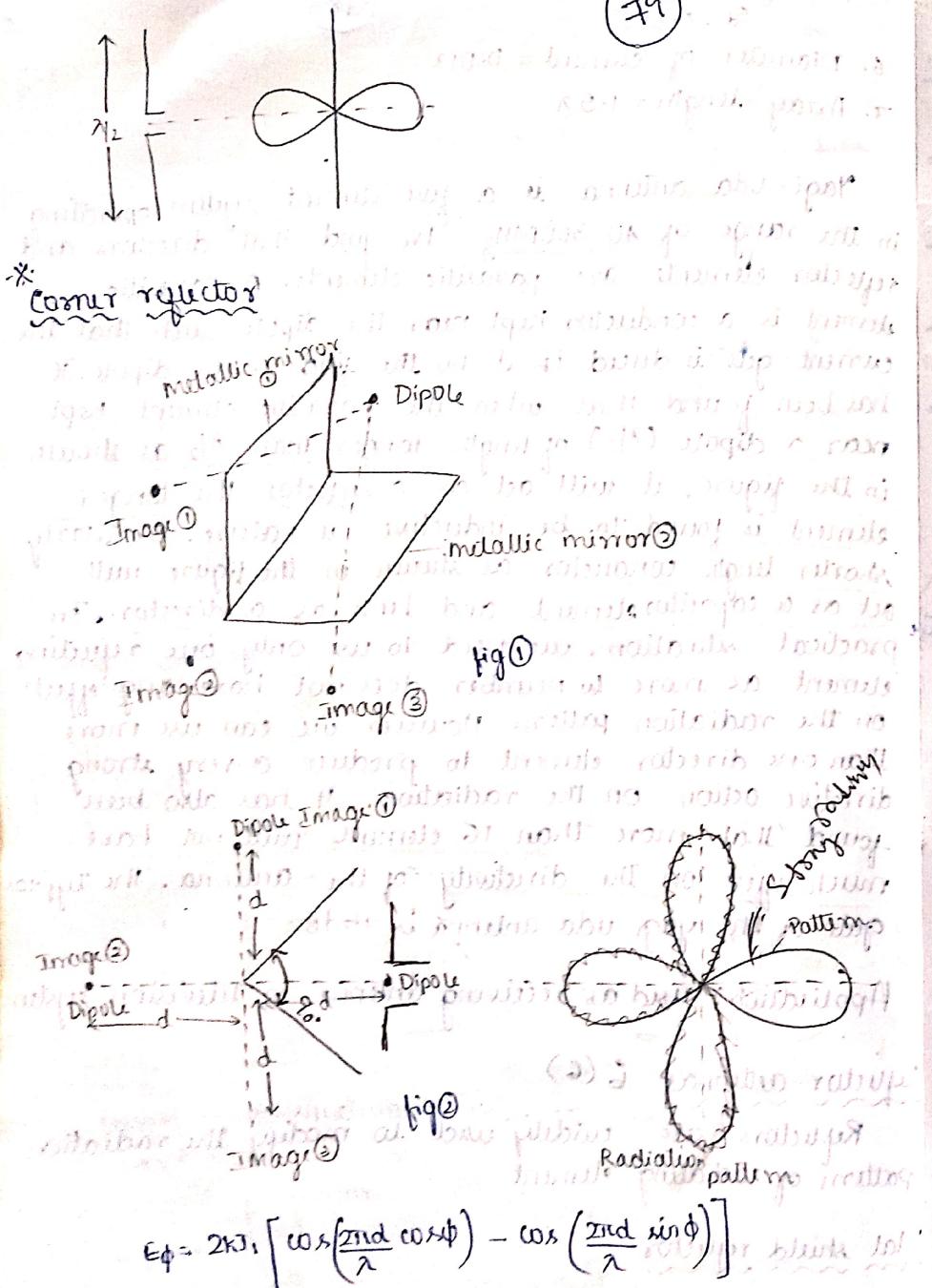
Application: used as receiving antenna in television system

Reflector antennas 6(c)

Reflectors are widely used to modify the radiation pattern of radiating element.

Flat shield reflector

It is a flat metal plate placed behind the radiator. It reflects the waves back towards the radiator. The intensity of radiation increases in forward direction.



$$E_\phi = 2k_1 \left[\cos\left(\frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \cos\phi\right) - \cos\left(\frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin\phi\right) \right]$$

A corner reflector is obtained when a flat metal sheet is folded in the middle to form a 90° square corner as shown in the figure. A 90° corner reflector produces three rays which is further illustrated in the figure ② which

produces more intense beam than a flat sheet reflector. This is because in the corner reflector there are 3 images that vertically add to produce the radiation pattern instead of one image in the flat sheet reflector. The field intensity is computed using the expression $I = \frac{I_0}{n}$.

Number of images in a corner reflector is $n = \frac{360}{\theta}$

If $\theta = 90^\circ = \frac{360}{90} = 4$

(80)

The mirror of any size and shape can convert an isotropic radiator into a directive source producing stronger radiation in a particular direction.

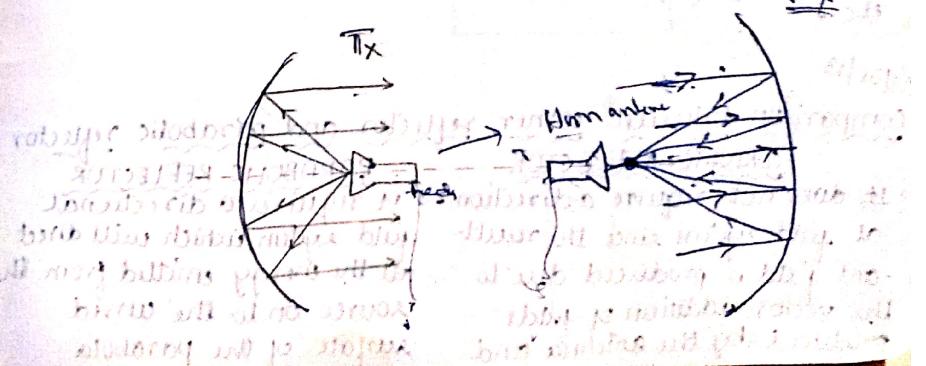
2/04/2021

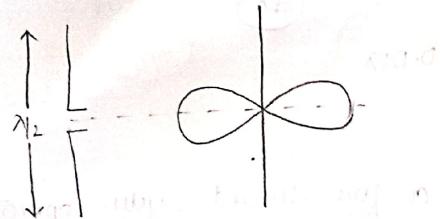
~~Parabolic Reflector~~ is used make a copy of a drawing.

Parabolic reflector makes a clear image of a distant object by reflecting light rays from the object to a single point to focus at a small area.

Design of a parabolic mirror:

The diagram illustrates the optical properties of a parabolic mirror. Light rays from various points (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z) on the parabola converge at the focal point. The shaded elliptical region represents the field of view or the area from which light can be collected by the mirror.





points to the beginning of the next chapter.

* corner reflectors reduce reflection at the walls of a room.

Dipole 

Image^① shows the empty cell of metallic mirror^② in the auto

metallic mirror② of a luminous
image reflected from the glass plate
at an angle of 45° and has a magnification of 10 times.

Fig ① *Leucostoma horridum* (Linn.)
Morph ② Imaginal form ③ Cystidial state ④ Juvenile

Image ③ A photograph showing a group of people gathered at a beach, with a small boat visible in the water.

Dipole Image ①

→ 100 - 1st year students all 20 years old
→ 100 - 2nd year students all 20 years old

Ineq(2) Dipole Dipole

(a) Δ Connection with Δ load.

$$E_\phi = 2k\beta_1 \left[\cos\left(\frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \cos\phi\right) - \cos\left(\frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin\phi\right) \right]$$

A corner reflector is obtained when a flat metal sheet is folded in the middle to form a 90° square corner as shown in the figure. A 90° corner reflector produces three images which is further illustrated in the figure ② which shows its plan. It can be seen that corner reflector

produces more intense beam than a flat sheet reflector. This is because in the corner reflector there are 3 images that vertically add to produce the radiation pattern instead of one image in the flat sheet reflector. The field intensity is computed using the expression if.

Number of images in a concave reflector is $n = \frac{360}{\theta}$

If $\theta = 90^\circ = \frac{360^\circ}{4}$, all the four ratios will be equal.

$$\text{At } D = 60^\circ, \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{360^\circ}{6} = 6$$

The mirror of any size and shape can convert an angle.

The mirror of any size and shape can convert an isotropic radiator into a directive source producing stronger radiation in a particular direction.

~~21041821~~ ~~2016-04-21~~ ~~to wash mirror & repair ant
acoustic reflectors~~

Parabolic Reflectors: A curved surface reflecting light or sound rays so as to direct them toward a given point.

The diagram illustrates a parabola opening upwards, centered at point O. The vertex is at the origin. A horizontal line through the vertex is the axis of symmetry. A point P is located on the parabola above the vertex. A line segment OP connects the origin to point P. The perpendicular distance from the axis of symmetry to point P is labeled 'Apex'. Points A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z are marked along the arc of the parabola. The focus of the parabola is labeled 'Focal Point'.

~~OAB = UKEDEH = OQI=OIJ~~ ~~royal emblem~~

The diagram illustrates a horn antenna system. At the center is a feed horn, which radiates waves through a waveguide and a lens system. These waves are directed onto a large, parabolic dish antenna, which focuses the signal. The resulting beam is shown as a series of arrows pointing away from the dish.

The figure shows construction of parabolic reflector. It can be seen that a parabolic reflector can be constructed by smoothening the corner reflector to form into a curved surface. In this transformation the curved surface is to follow the mathematical theory on which a parabola is formed. For a parabola distance $OAB = OCD = OEF = OGH = OS$. The point O is called focus and PQ is the aperture of the parabola. Thus it can be seen that all the rays emitting from the point O traverse the same distance to reach the aperture of the curved surface after reflection from that surface. Thus all the reflected rays, such as AB, CD, EF, GH and IJ can be seen to be parallel to each other.

Working:

Transmission

The figure 4 shows how a parabolic reflector is used in conjunction with a horn antenna for transmission. The horn antenna is placed at focal point.

During transmission, the horn antenna radiates the signals towards the reflectors which bounce the wave off and collimate them into a narrow pencil beam. When used for receiving the reflector picks up the em signal and bounces the wave towards the horn antenna @ the focal point. The result is high gain and narrow beam width.

Application:

→ Antenna for receiving broadcast directly from satellite, radio direction finding, microwave comm' link, pt to pt sources etc.,

03/05/13

Comparison between corner reflector and parabolic reflector

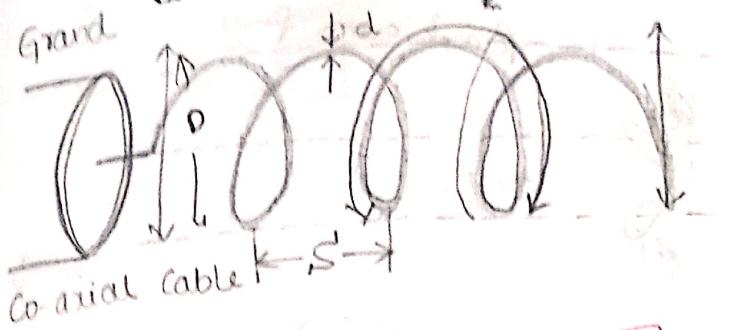
CORNER REFLECTOR

→ It does not require a directional field system since the resultant field is produced due to the vector addition of fields produced by the antenna and

PARABOLIC REFLECTOR
→ It requires a directional field system which will direct all the energy emitted from the source onto the curved surface of the parabola

Helical antenna

Q.6 (5)



$$\tan \alpha = \frac{S}{\pi D}$$

$$\alpha = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{S}{\pi D} \right) \quad \left(\frac{S}{c} \right)$$

pitch angle

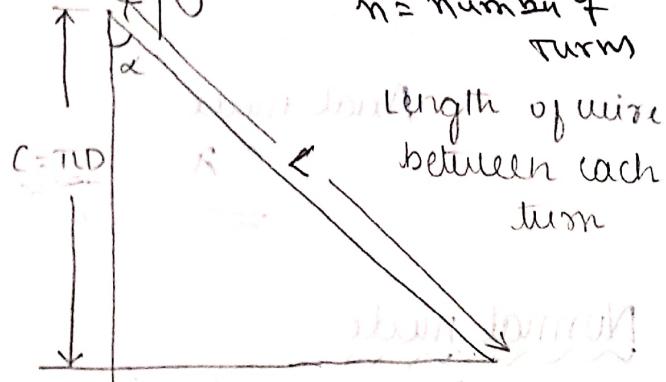
Circumference of helix

$$= C = \pi D$$

$$\text{pitch length} = S / \pi D$$

$$\text{total length} = L = n \times S$$

$n = \text{number of turns}$



In broad with good omnidirectional in fibers. It is a wideband antenna. Helical antenna can be used to produce and receive waves of circular polarization. It is a wideband antenna, super gain antenna, acts like an endfire array. It offers uniform input impedance over its operating frequency range. ~~also it maintains low side lobe levels~~. ~~and it has a narrow main lobe width, so that the beam steering is~~ ~~construction:~~

Suppose if you want to construct helical antenna, first we decide number of turns required and diameter of each turn. Then we choose a copper wire of sufficient thickness d , length L and mechanical strength. This is then wound on a cylinder of appropriate diameter to form the desired helix. In winding, the helix, we employ rotating and pulling forces simultaneously on the wire.

Q.7

Different modes of helical antenna

There are 2 modes.

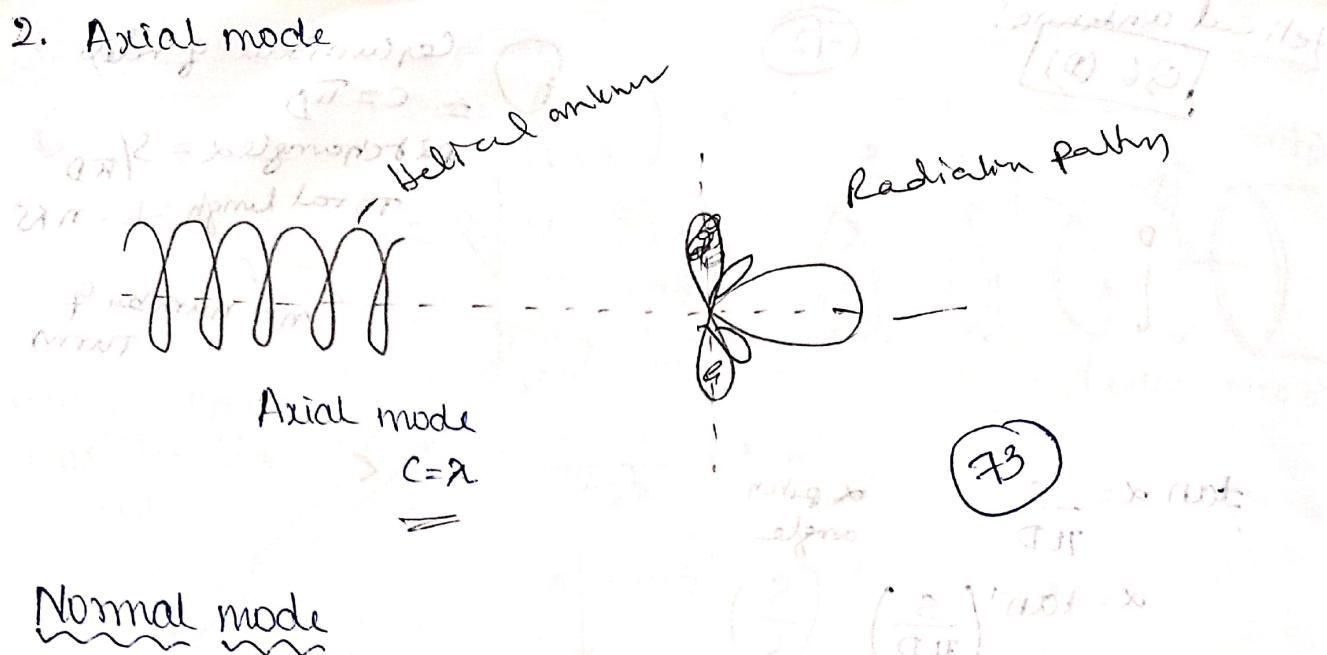
1. Normal mode

out. ~~using p minch~~ ~~with~~ ~~helical~~ ~~antenna~~
using current ~~in the~~ ~~at point~~ ~~length~~
~~length~~ ~~per unit~~ ~~length~~ ~~length~~

- 1) wide band antenna
- 2) super gain antenna
- 3) act as an end fire antenna
- 4) uniform input impedance
- 5) narrow main lobe width
- 6) low side lobe levels

- 1) Space charge effect
- 2) Self inductance

2. Axial mode



In this, the radiation is maximum along the broadside to the helix axis under the condition that the circumference of the helix is smaller wrt wavelength.

Axial mode

In this, the max. radiation is along the helix axis, or an end fire axis. Under the condition that circumference of the helix is of the order of one wavelength.

Design considerations of monofilar (single turn) axial mode helical antenna

The following are the parameters considered for monofilar axial mode helical antenna.

1. Gain required to be produced by the antenna.
2. Impedance offered by the antenna.
3. Axial ratio of the helix.
4. Width of the beam to be produced.

We know that for an array, the larger the gain of the array the greater the concentration of power. Since the helical antenna may be regarded as a super gain array, we conclude that gain and beam width of helical antenna are related by

$$G \propto \frac{1}{(\text{HPBW})^2}$$

- Number of turns in the helix
- Gain of the antenna
- Impedance of the antenna
- Axial ratio of the antenna

(74)

The above parameters are found to be the function of

1. Size and shape of the ground plane

2. Diameter of helix conductor

3. Structure that support the helix

4. Feed arrangement

John D. Kraus developed the empirical formula for beam width and directivity

$$HPBW = \frac{52}{c \sqrt{n(s)}} \quad n = \text{number of turns}$$

~~Wavelength, c = speed of light, s = pitch~~

$$FNBW = \frac{115}{c \sqrt{n(s)}} \quad l = \text{diag conductor}$$

$$\text{directivity } D = 12n \left(\frac{c}{\lambda} \right)^2 \left(\frac{s}{\lambda} \right)^2 \left[\left(\frac{\pi - b}{\lambda} \right) \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{2} \right] \quad \text{width of lobe}$$

Obtain the expression for axial mode pattern of helical antenna

Wkt, for N element isotropic radiation

$$E = \frac{\sin(N\theta/2)}{\sin \theta/2}$$

$$\theta = \phi + \frac{2\pi d \cos \alpha}{\lambda}$$

ϕ = progressive phase angle, α = angle of field with

N-isotropic sources ($e^{j(\phi + \alpha)}$)

fig.(1)

Axial axis

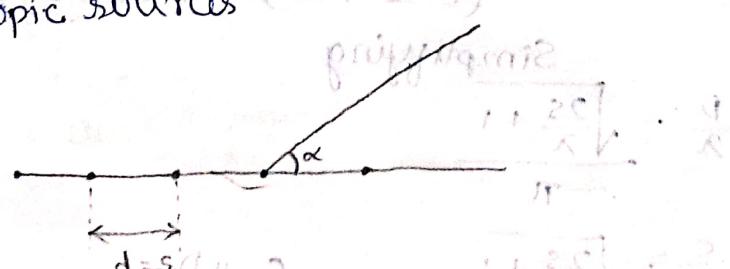
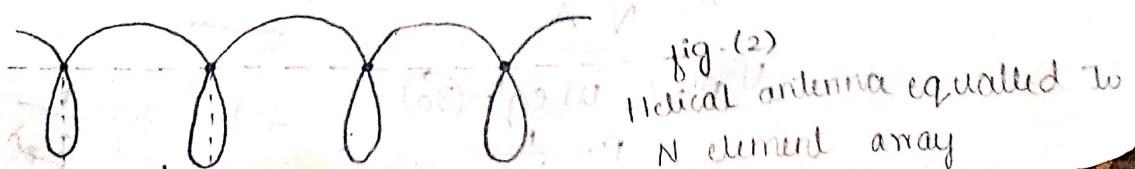


fig.(2)



Internal Assessment Test - 3

Sub:	Microwave and Antennas						Code:	21EC62	
Date:	27/07/2024	Duration:	90 mins	Max Marks:	50	Sem:	VI	Branch:	ECE

Answer any Five Questions

	Questions	Marks	CO	RBT
1.	Derive the expression for total field, in case of two isotropic point sources with the same amplitude and equal phase. Plot the field pattern for two isotropic point sources spaced $\lambda/2$ apart.	[10]	CO4	L2
2.	Derive the expression for total field, in case of n-linear isotropic point sources. What is pattern multiplication and discuss briefly with examples.	[10]	CO4	L3
3.	State and prove the power theorem & mention its applications. Prove that $D=2(n+1)$ for a unidirectional pattern given by $U = U_m \cos^n \theta$	[10]	CO4	L2,L3
4.	Derive field expression for Short Electric dipole/ Thin linear antenna.	[10]	CO4	L2
5.	Derive the expression for radiation resistance of short dipole and small loop antenna.	[10]	CO4,5	L3
6.	Write short notes on a) Horn Antennas, b) Yagi Uda array, c) Parabolic Reflector d) Helical antenna.	[10]	CO5	L2
7.	Explain with diagram Helix geometry & Helix modes. What are Practical design considerations for mono-filar axial mode Helical Antenna.	[10]	CO5	L2
8.	Determine the Length L , H - plane aperture and flare angle θ_E and θ_H of a pyramidal horn for which the E -plane aperture $a_E = 10\lambda$. The horn is fed by a rectangular waveguide with TE_{10} mode. Let $\delta = 0.2\lambda$ in the E -plane and 0.375λ in the H -plane. Also find Beam widths and directivity.	[10]	CO4	L3

88
CCI

M. Pappa
HOD

Radiation Resistance of a Loop antenna (for any size) :

Derive an expr. for the radiation resistance of a loop ant.

By Poynting thm, $P = \frac{1}{2} E H$ $\rightarrow H\eta_0$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cancel{\mu_0} \times \cancel{H} = \frac{1}{2} \cancel{H^2} \cancel{\eta_0} \Rightarrow 4\pi \cancel{H^2}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{2} H^2 \eta_0 \Rightarrow \boxed{P = 60H^2} \quad \eta_0 = 120\pi$$

From general expression for loop antennas ...

Generalized loop antenna field strength for any size :

(2)

$$E_\phi = \frac{60\pi \beta a I}{r} J_1 \left(\frac{2\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)$$

R_{loop}
known
249

$$H_0 = \frac{\beta a I}{2\lambda} J_1 \left(\frac{2\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\beta a I}{2\lambda} J_1 \left(\frac{2\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)$$

elemental power

$$dP = \left[\frac{\beta a I}{2\lambda} J_1 \left(\frac{2\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right) \right]^2 \times 60\pi$$

$$= 15\pi \left[\frac{\beta a I}{2} J_1 \left(\beta a \sin \theta \right) \right]^2$$

Consider form spherical co-ordinates.

$$P = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} 15\pi \left[\frac{\beta a I}{2} J_1 \left(\beta a \sin \theta \right) \right]^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

$$= 30\pi^2 (\beta a I)^2 \int_0^{\pi} J_1^2(\beta a \sin \theta) \sin \theta d\theta \rightarrow (1)$$

Case 1: For small loop

$$J_1(x) = \frac{x}{2} \text{ in (1)}$$

$$P = 30\pi^2 (\beta a I)^2 \int_0^{\pi} \left(\frac{\beta a \sin \theta}{2} \right)^2 \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$\boxed{P = 10\beta^4 A^2 I^2}$$

$$A = \pi a^2 \text{ (Loop Area)}$$

$$\boxed{V_2 R_L = 10 \beta^4 A^2 I^2}$$

(3)

$$P = \frac{1}{2} I^2 R_L \Rightarrow R_L = 20 \beta^4 A^2$$

$$R_L = 20 \times \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \right)^4 A^2 = 31171 \left(\frac{A}{\lambda^2} \right) \text{ ohm}$$

$$R_L = 31171 \left(\frac{nA}{\lambda^2} \right)^2 \text{ ohm}$$

n = number of turns

Case 2: Large loop

λ is perimeter
of the loop

Direct eqn : $R_L = 3721 \left(\frac{a}{\lambda} \right) \text{ ohm}$

$a > 5$	$a \rightarrow$
$\lambda > 5$	radius of the loop
$\lambda \rightarrow$ wavelength	

Directivity of Circular Loop:

$$\text{General : } D = \frac{2\beta a}{\lambda} \left[J_1^2(\beta a \sin \theta) \right]_{\max}$$

$$\left[\int_0^{\lambda} J_2(y) dy \right]$$

Case 1: Small loop ($\beta a \ll 1$)

$$D = 2\beta a \left[\left(\frac{\beta a}{2} \right) \sin \theta \right]^2 \rightarrow \boxed{D = 3/2}$$

$$\left(\frac{\beta a}{3} \right)^3$$

Case 2: Large loop ($\beta a \gg 5$)

$$J_1(\beta a \sin \theta) = 0.582$$

$$\boxed{D = 0.677 \beta a}$$