

## Electric dipole radiation and simple antennas

The simplest radiating system is an electric dipole whose moment oscillates in time with a well-defined angular frequency  $\omega$  along the  $z$  direction (for instance). We can produce such a dipole by considering two opposite charges, one of which is fixed at the origin while the other executes simple harmonic motion with amplitude  $d$ , so that its position is given by  $z = d \cos \omega t$ . To represent an atom, the moving charge would be  $e$  (considered here as a negative quantity), representing an electron, and the fixed charge would be  $|e|$ , representing the nuclear charge screened by the other electrons. We will use this notation for the general case as well, where  $e$  could have any value and either sign. In general

$$p_z = ez = ed \cos \omega t \quad (4.15)$$

and we note that (with the dot denoting differentiation with respect to  $t$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{p}_z &= ev = -ed\omega \sin \omega t \\ \ddot{p}_z &= e\dot{v} = -ed\omega^2 \cos \omega t \end{aligned}$$

According to the Larmor equation (4.13) the total radiated power at time  $t$  is then

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\ddot{p}_z^2}{c^3}$$

and varies like  $\cos^2 \omega t$ . Recalling that the time average of  $\cos^2 \omega t$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$  and denoting the time average by brackets we find that the average radiated power is

$$\langle P \rangle = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\langle \ddot{p}_z^2 \rangle}{c^3} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{d^2 \omega^4}{c^3} \quad (4.16)$$

We have just rewritten the Larmor formula for a simple oscillator, emphasizing the difference between instantaneous power and average power. We note also that the corresponding formulas in the Gaussian system are obtained by omitting the factor  $1/4\pi\epsilon_0$ .

Although the wave emitted by the oscillating dipole is a spherical wave, it does not have the same intensity in all directions. It can be shown that the average power emitted in the direction that makes an angle  $\theta$  with the  $z$  axis, within a solid angle  $d\Omega$ , is

$$\frac{d\langle P \rangle}{d\Omega} = \frac{1}{8\pi} \sin^2 \theta \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{d^2 \omega^4}{c^3} \quad (4.16')$$

This can be understood as follows: the radiation is emitted by the component of the emitter's motion that is perpendicular to the line of sight – see Fig. 4.3(c). Note also that

$$\int \sin^2 \theta d\Omega = 2\pi \int_0^\pi \sin^3 \theta d\theta = \frac{8\pi}{3}$$

so that (4.16') agrees with (4.16).

The intensity of the radiation is the energy flux, i.e. the energy  $dE$  crossing the area  $dA$  per unit time. Since energy per unit time is power, and at distance  $R$  from the source of radiation  $dA = R^2 d\Omega$ , we see that the energy flux, or radiation intensity, is

$$\frac{dP}{dA} = \frac{1}{R^2} \frac{dP}{d\Omega}$$

The intensity arriving at time  $t$  depends on the state of motion of the source at time  $t - R/c$ , because the signal travels with speed  $c$ . For a single dipole source in simple harmonic motion it varies like  $\cos^2\omega(t - R/c)$  and its time average is found by using (4.16').

Finally, it must be mentioned that the Larmor formula is applicable only when the motion of the particle is non-relativistic, i.e. when  $v \ll c$ . For simple harmonic motion the maximum value of  $v$  is  $\omega d$ , and thus (4.16) and (4.16') are strictly valid only when  $\omega d \ll c$ , or  $2\pi d \ll \lambda$ , where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength. This is not a serious restriction in the case of atoms, where  $d$  is about 1 angstrom and  $\lambda$  is thousands of times larger, for visible light.

**Antennas.** Simple antennas are most efficient when they have dimensions comparable to the wavelength they emit. The theory of the simple dipole emitter is not strictly applicable to them; however it still gives qualitatively correct answers. An oscillating particle of charge  $e$  can be thought of as a current  $I = I_0 \sin \omega t = 2e\omega \sin \omega t$ . Replacing  $e$  by  $I_0/2\omega$  and using  $\omega = 2\pi c/\lambda$  as well as  $1/c = (\epsilon_0\mu_0)^{1/2}$ , we can rewrite eqs. (4.16) and (4.16') in the form

$$\langle P \rangle = \frac{1}{48\pi} \left( \frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \right)^2 I_0^2 \quad (4.17)$$

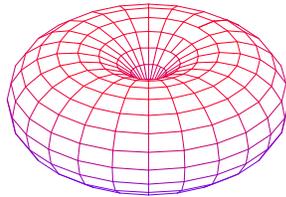
$$\frac{d\langle P \rangle}{d\Omega} = \frac{1}{128\pi^2} \left( \frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \right)^2 I_0^2 \sin^2 \theta \quad (4.18)$$

The quantity  $Z_0 = \left( \frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0} \right)^{1/2}$  has the dimensions of impedance and is called the *impedance of free space*; it has the numerical value  $Z_0 = 377$  - .

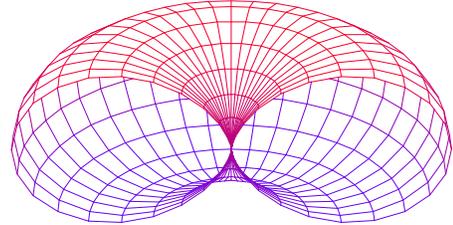
An example often used is the half-wave center-fed linear antenna – see Fig. 4.3(b). The current distribution, for  $|z| \leq d/2$ , is approximately of the form

$$I = I_0 \cos(\pi z/d) \sin \omega t$$

with  $\omega = \pi c/d$ . Since  $\lambda = 2\pi c/\omega$ , we see that  $d = \lambda/2$ , which explains the name “half-wave”. The radiation pattern of the half-wave antenna is similar to the dipole pattern (4.18), and the total power is larger than the simple formula (4.17) by a factor of 1.46.



Dipole radiation pattern  $\sin^2 \theta$



Cut-out view of the same