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Low-Cost Non-Uniform Metallic Lattice for Rectifying Aperture Near-Field of Electromagnetic Bandgap Resonator Antennas

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Abstract—This paper addresses a critical issue, which has been overlooked, in relation to the design of Phase Correcting Structures (PCSs) for Electromagnetic Bandgap (EBG) Resonator Antennas (ERAs). All previously proposed PCSs for ERAs are made either using several expensive Radio Frequency (RF) dielectric laminates, or thick and heavy dielectric materials, contributing to very high fabrication cost, posing an industrial impediment to the application of ERAs. This paper presents a new industrialfriendly generation of PCS, in which dielectrics, known as the main cause of high manufacturing cost, are removed from the PCS configuration, introducing an All-Metallic PCS (AMPCS). Unlike existing PCSs, a hybrid topology of fully-metallic spatial phase shifters are developed for the AMPCS, resulting in an extremely lower prototyping cost as that of other state-of-theart substrate-based PCSs. The APMCS was fabricated using laser technology and tested with an ERA to verify its predicted performance. Results show that the phase uniformity of the ERA aperture has been remarkably improved, resulting in 8.4 dB improvement in the peak gain of the antenna and improved sidelobe levels (SLLs). The antenna system including APMCS has a peak gain of 19.42 dB with a 1-dB gain bandwidth of around 6%.

Index Terms—All-metal manufacturing, Electromagnetic Band Gap (EBG) Resonator Antenna, electromagnetic near-field distribution, Fabry-Perot resonator antenna, frequency selective surfaces, high gain, laser cutting prototyping, metasurface, phase correction, Phase Correcting Surface (PCS), Resonant Cavity Antenna (RCA).

I. Introduction

In modern communication systems, directive antennas play an essential role in various applications such as satellite reception, point to point microwave links and back-haul networks. Reflector antennas are perhaps considered as one of the most conventional directive antennas with stable radiation patterns [1]; however their parabolic shapes along with their large sizes become problematic in some applications, such as communication on-the-move. Another category of the narrow-beam antennas are array antennas which occupy considerably

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less space; however a complex feed network is required which potentially increases the loss throughout the antenna system, and the fabrication cost. The third category of the directive antennas are cavity-based antennas, such as electromagnetic bandgap (EBG) Resonators Antennas (ERAs) also known as resonant cavity antennas and Febry-Perot resonator antennas which have the advantage of a single feed and a planar structure [2]–[8]. Despite the mentioned desired ERAs' characteristics, the near-field phase defect of this class of antenna was revealed in 2015 [9] and since then, several solutions have been proposed to tackle this deficiency in the hope of making ERAs a practical solution, when volumetric features along with electromagnetic characteristics are critical [9]–[20]. It is important to re-iterate that the lens theory cannot be applied on ERAs or any similar antennas to estimate their phase errors, as neither of the two essential conditions of single point source and reflection-free medium is satisfied in relation to ERAs, as explicitly discussed in [9], [10]. As a result, the first generation of Phase Correcting Structure (PCS) for ERAs was proposed and tested successfully, suggesting significant improvement in the near-field phase uniformity, leading to highly directive radiation patterns with stable side lobe levels [9]. This very first class of PCS is composed of several dielectric heights to effectively manipulate the local aperture-phase values for phase-error minimization at the operating frequency [9]–[11]. However, the non-planar configuration, very high fabrication cost, as well as undesirably heavy weight of such PCSs were a serious impediment to fully introduce the modified ERAs as a viable industrially justified solution. To mitigate some of these issues, semi-planar configurations were later on proposed, in which high-profile single-dielectric in the PCS configurations was replaced by composite-based dielectrics, leading to a lighter PCS with a smaller profile at the expense of more complex fabrication process [14].

The second generation of PCS has been recently introduced [12], [13], [15], in which undesirably thick phase-correcting regions, in the first generation, have been replaced by completely planar metasurfaces. This class of PCSs is composed of multiple printed dielectric layers stacked together to impose localized time-delay throughout the aperture of the antenna. The second generation of PCSs have been successful in replicating almost the same electromagnetic performance as that of the first; nevertheless, the presence of multiple fairy large dielectric substrates and the associated bonding techniques contribute to an expensive antenna system, limiting

its applications in highly specialized practices.

Reviewing literature reveals that while there has been a promising trajectory on evolution of PCSs for aperture antennas like ERAs, the critical aspect of market affordability has been overlooked, posing a serious barrier for ERAs to find their applications in today's industry. This paper introduces the third generation of the PCSs, where industrial justification and cost is equally weighted along with the electromagnetic performance. Here, in the third generation of PCS, dielectric substrates are made redundant for the first time, making a breakthrough in relation to the fabrication cost, while the electromagnetic performance is not sacrificed and comparable with the previous high-cost generations. Additionally, all-metal configurations are preferred in high-power applications as discussed in [21]. The proposed All-Metallic PCS (AMPCS) is made of three stainless steel surfaces segregated with a sub-wavelength air-gap, without the need for any bonding techniques, as opposed to all other classes of PCS which either require thick dielectric thicknesses, or multiple of expensive printed RF laminates. It is well-known that the existence of dielectric materials in an EM structure will introduce additional loss, which depends on the inherent dissipation of electromagnetic energy of the materials as well as frequency. This additional loss can be minimized at the significant increased cost of development, but cannot be eliminated. We have developed a PCS which does not use any dielectric material at all to eliminate these additional losses.

It should be noted that the proposed AMPCS can be made of different types of metal through a variety of fabrication techniques, such as laser cutting or stamping a thin metal sheet, opening a new door to affordable large-scale prototyping, which was otherwise not possible with the expensive commercial RF laminates. Additionally, the AMPCS is lightweight and has no limitations in terms of polarizations, due to its symmetrical topology both in macroscopic and microscopic levels.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II describes briefly the phase defect of a typical ERA and suggest the macroscopic and microscopic configurations of the AMPCS. Section III discusses the fabrication process of the proposed AMPCS and some special considerations need to be taken into account for metal manufacturing. Section IV presents the near-field and far-field results of the antenna system, highlighting the AMPCS performance.

II. DESIGN OF THE AMPCS

The design procedure of AMPCS can be divided into two major steps, in which a macroscopic configuration of the AMPCS is firstly suggested based on the nature of the near-field non-uniformity of the electromagnetic (EM) source under examination. To do so, an ERA is used as an example case of an aperture EM source suffering from a highly spherical wavefront. In the second step, microscopic topology needs to be discussed, where the configurations of all-metal phase-correcting elements are proposed.

A. Macroscopic topology of the metallic PCS

A conventional ERA is composed of a partially reflecting surface (PRS) placed at a half wavelength from a ground plane containing a simple feed. The feed excites the cavity formed between the PRS and the ground plane [3]. In a different approach, fully reflecting surfaces can also be engineered to form an ERA as explained in [22]-[24]. Fig. 1(a) shows the ERA under examination with a flat unprinted surface as its PRS. The PRS is made of Rogers TMM 4 with a thickness of 3.17 mm, which is close to $\lambda_q/4$, as recommended in the literature [3], [7], and placed at a distance of $\lambda_0/2$ from the ground plane to construct a cavity, where λ_0 and λ_q are the free-space wavelength and guided wavelength within the PRS at the operating frequency of 11 GHz. The cavity was excited using a single slot antenna with an opening of 13.2 mm×8 mm placed in the center of the ground. In order to calculate the phase errors in the antenna aperture originated from the transversal prorogation of the slot antenna, an imaginary plane is considered at a sub-wavelength distance of 7 mm from the antenna where the local phase values are measured and depicted by a 2D plot in Fig. 1(b). As can be seen from this plot, the near-field phase values are approximately independent with respect to ϕ in the cylindrical coordinates.

In order to discretize the aperture phase distribution, the actual phase values along the $\phi = 0$, with an interval of $\lambda_0/3$ are captured in the imaginary plane, resulting in 7 discrete values, which are used to quantify the aperture phase-errors with respect to an arbitrary constant. The sampling interval is critical and chosen following the recommendations in [9], [14], [25], [26], as large intervals would result in sub-optimal correction, due to discretization error and too small ones would cause fabrication complexity, especially for an all-metal structure. To correct such circularly symmetrical, yet highly non-uniform, phase distribution of the antenna, the proposed AMPCS needs to follow the same symmetry, resulting in a semi-rotational orientation of 7 different phase-correcting elements, as shown in Fig. 2. It should be noted that such arrangement is not singular and any other circular patterns inspired by the actual near-field phase distribution of the EM source can be used. Knowing the macroscopic structure of the AMPCS and the required localized phase correction, next step is to design phase-correcting elements of the AMPCS.

B. Microscopic topology of AMPCS

The Second generation of PCSs are generally composed of localized spatial phase shifters developed by stacking multiple expensive RF laminates. The use of dielectric as a substrate for the metallic patterns along with a wide variety of available substrates (numerous dielectric constants and thicknesses) provides PCS designers with an extremely large degree of freedom to achieve the transmission properties required throughout the PCSs [12], [13], [15], [16], [27], [28]. Indeed, any conductive patterns, resonant or non-resonant elements, with any commercially available substrates can be used to achieve a transparent structure with the required phase delay at the operating frequency. On the other hand, such flexibility does not exist with all-metal configurations. Therefore, non

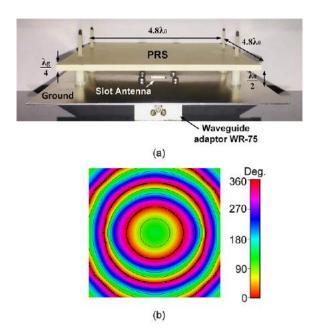


Fig. 1. (a) A photo of the fabricated ERA with an unprinted PRS made of Rogers TMM 4. (b) 2D presentation of the phase distribution of E_y 7 mm above the antenna aperture.

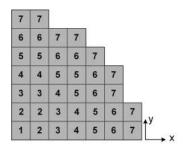


Fig. 2. Quasi-circular arrangement of the phase-correcting elements used for the AMPCS realization.

of the proposed configurations of printed phase-correcting elements in the literature can be implemented in a fully metallic topology.

To tackle this issue, we propose a hybrid all-metal configuration for the phase-correcting elements, in which different number of segregated conductive layers are used. In the proposed configuration, the consistency and the mechanical integrity, which are the main barriers to the all-metal EM devices, are ensured by an inductive metallic grid extending throughout AMPCS structure. The justification to use such a high-impedance metallic network is grounded by the fact that the resonance condition can be potentially satisfied by a combination of the inductive effects of two segregated metallic grids and the capacitive effects of the transmission line placed between the two grids. Consequently, it can be hypothesized that a pair of inductive grids will create a hightransmission window around their resonance, making them a possible phase-correcting element, in addition to their primary role of ensuring mechanical consistency of other metallic patterns used in the future phase-correcting elements.

To verify this hypothesis, a parametric analysis of two identical metallic grids separated by 10 mm ($\approx \lambda_0/3$) with

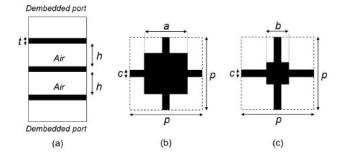


Fig. 3. Unit-cell configuration of the all-metal phase shifters used in Ring 2 to Ring 7 of the quasi-circular geometry shown in Fig. 2 (a) Side view of a unit cell of the AMPCS. (b) Top and bottom conductive patterns of a unit cell of the AMPCS. (c) The middle conductive pattern of a unit cell in the AMPCS. In each unit cell, the square paths are held by the inductive strips with a constant width of c. The inductive strips running throughout the the three surfaces, responsible for the integrity of the structure.

varying widths from 0.4 mm to 1.6 mm and a step of 0.1 mm was carried out using CST MWS. According to the numerically computed transmission coefficients, a phase range of 100 degrees (125° to 225°) with reasonably high transmission magnitude can be achieved by this simple structure. The significance of this relatively small phase range will be revealed when other phase-correcting topologies are designed and appear to fail to fill the same phase-range.

To achieve other required phase-delay values, metallic patches are incorporated into three layers of the metallic grid, creating new phase-correcting elements, as illustrated in Fig. 3. The size of each element is set to $\lambda_0/3$ and denoted by p in Fig. 3. To ensure reciprocity and simplicity of the proposed AMPCS, the top and bottom patches are designed to be identical with a maximum size of $p = \lambda_0/3$. In this configuration, the width of the grid and the thickness of both patches and girds are set to 0.4 mm and 1 mm, respectively, considering the limitations associated to the laser cutting which is used in the fabrication process and discussed in Section Section III. The size of the square patches, however, are varied to achieve the required phase shifts using a parametric study with a step size of 0.3 mm chosen based on the fabrication tolerance.

The transmission phase and magnitude at the operating frequency of 11 GHz are extracted from the parametric study and illustrated through a polar graph shown in Fig. 4. In this plot, the transmission characteristics of each phase-correcting element is presented by a blue square, suggesting the incapability of the unit-cell configuration in Fig. 3 in covering the phase values of 45° to 210° , which would be a barrier for the phase correction of EM sources with a severe aperture phase non-uniformity like the ERA under consideration. This problem is rectified by using a pair of standalone inductive grids as phase-correcting elements, as explained earlier, and shown by red crosses in Fig. 4.

The final stage of designing AMPCS is choosing the suitable candidates from the element bank shown in Fig. 4 and arrange them in the pre-designed macroscopic regime discussed in Section II-A, in which only 7 discrete correcting elements are required. The geometrical and EM properties of the unit cells used in the APMCS are tabulated in Table I. As shown

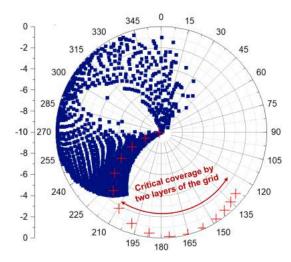


Fig. 4. Polar representation of the transmission coefficients generated by the proposed hybrid all metal configuration. The blue squares represent the transmission components of three square patches connected by the three layers of the metallic grid. Red crosses show the transmission coefficients of two layers of the grid in the absence of metallic patches.

in the table, the first correcting ring (Ring 1) is composed of only two layers of grid, while Ring 2 and 3 consist of three layers of grid and one middle patch, all other correcting rings require 3 metallic patches. It needs to be mentioned that the unit cell used in Ring 7 is slightly less transparent than other phase-correcting cells, however it should not affect the overall performance of the antenna system, as the magnitude of aperture field is considerably weaker in outermost areas.

The proposed design technique is distinguished from other PCB PCSs reported in [12] and [13] at different levels. Firstly, all other PCB PCSs mentioned above are composed of metallic patches printed on multiple layers of microwave substrates. Such geometries are impossible to implement using a dielectric-free structure, and hence cannot be used in the AMPCS. Secondly, in the AMPCS, the phase range required for the ERA phase correction is achieved using a hybrid structure, in which unit cells with different number of conductive layers and patterns are used, as opposed to the abovementioned design, where only one geometry with the same number of layers are used.

III. FABRICATION CONSIDERATIONS

There are a variety of fabrication methods which can be employed for realization of the proposed AMPCS, thanks to the recent advancements in the metal manufacturing technology. There are five possible prototyping procedures including Computer Numerical Control (CNC) machining [29], plasma cutting [30], metal additive manufacturing [31], waterjet cutting [32] and laser cutting [33]. Amongst them, we highly recommend the last two methods for the AMPCS prototyping. Indeed, the sharp vertex of the perforated polygons cannot be achieved using CNC machining, due to the round tip of CNC bits, additionally there is a high chance of metal failure during drilling because of the small thickness of the metal sheet. Secondly, plasma cutting performs efficiently only for large cutting areas with simple patterns, while the AMPCS

TABLE I
GEOGRAPHICAL AND ELECTROMAGNETIC PROPERTIES OF THE PHASE
CORRECTING ELEMENTS USED IN THE AMPCS

Ring	S21	$\Delta \phi$	No. of metallic	a	b	c
no.	(dB)	(Deg.)	Layers	(mm)	(mm)	(mm)
1	0.0	187	2	0	0	0.8
2	-2.7	214	3	0	2.7	0.4
3	-0.1	255	3	0	6.2	0.4
4	-0.2	296	3	3.3	6.2	0.4
5	-0.5	330	3	5.4	5.5	0.4
6	-0.5	330	3	5.4	5.5	0.4
7	-3.0	12	3	6.8	4.8	0.4

Note: Ring no. corresponds to the quasi-circular arrangement of the phase-correcting elements illustrated in Fig. 2. Letters a, b and c correspond to the geometry depicted in Fig. 3, where a is the size of the top and bottom patches, b is the middle patch size, and c is the grid width.

has many miniature segments which would be damaged due to the destructive influence of plasma cutting on the confluences. Metal additive manufacturing is a very precise method for prototyping metallic objects with delicate segments; however, it is not recommended in the case of AMPCS, as the 3D printed AMPCS would be highly subject to damage, when it is removed from the printer bed, due to its small thickness. Either water-jet cutting and laser cutting can be used to fabricate the proposed AMPCS, as both method are capable to finely perforate metal sheets; nevertheless, the water-jet cutting is a lengthier process than laser cutting, leading to a higher fabrication cost, hence the AMPCS was fabricated using laser cutting technology.

The proposed AMPCS was made of stainless steel sheets using cutting-edge laser technology. The thickness of the metallic sheets plays a critical role in both fabrication and durability of the AMPCS. From the packaging points of view, greater thickness is preferred, as it is more sustainable and removes the need for any extra supports, such as radome or foam substrate. However, increase in the metal thickness would escalate the chance of metal failure during the fabrication process, due to the excessive heat absorbed by the thick metal sheet. Therefore, there is a trade-off which needs to be addressed at the beginning of the design process. In this design, the thickness of 1 mm is recommended considering the large volume of perforation performed on each surface of the AMPCS. Such selection ensures both fabricability and robustness of the freestanding AMPCS.

IV. NEAR-FIELD AND FAR-FIELD RESULTS

Fig. 5 shows three layers of the AMPCS fabricated by a laser cutting machine (HL-6060C) with a maximum line cutting speed of 800 mm/s. The layers are separated with 4 nylon spaces to form the AMPCS, and placed on the antenna at a distance of $\lambda_0/4$ from the PRS, as depicted in Fig. 6. The reason for choosing $\lambda_0/4$ space between PRS and the AMPCS is because the local phase values of the electric aperture field of the antenna are captured on an imaginary plane at the same distance from the PRS, and hence the AMPCS is expected

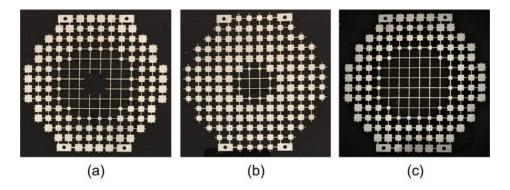


Fig. 5. Laser cut AMPCS made of stainless steel sheet with a thickness of 1 mm.(a) top layer, (b) middle layer, (c) bottom layer.

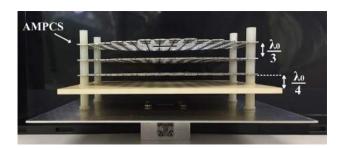


Fig. 6. A prototype of the fabricated AMPCS loaded on the ERA.

to have its optimum performance at this distance from the radiating aperture. It should be mentioned that the presented design procedure of AMPCS is not dependent of the PRS, and can be applied on ERAs regardless of their types of PRS.

The near electric field of the antenna system was numerically calculated using the time-domain solver of CST Microwave Studio (CST MWS) and shown in Fig. 7. It can be seen that a remarkable enhancement in the aperture phase distribution of the antenna system is achieved, extending the uniform phase region to more than double. The uniform phase region is referred to the area of the antenna aperture with a phase error smaller than 50 degrees [13].

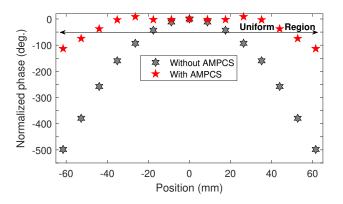


Fig. 7. Phase distribution of the y-component of the electric field of the ERA under consideration at 11 GHz. Uniform phase region is more than doubled due to AMPCS.

The input reflection coefficient of the ERA was simulated and measured using CST MWS and Agilent PNA-X N5242A vector network analyzer, respectively and plotted in Fig. 8.

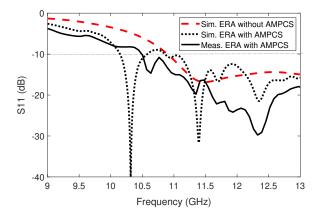


Fig. 8. Input reflection coefficient of the antenna.

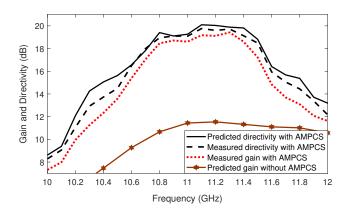


Fig. 9. A comparison between the gain and directivity of the ERA with and without the AMPCS.

According to the measured results, the 10 dB |S11| bandwidth of the antennas with AMPCS is 42% from 10.6 to 16.3 GHz, which is in good agreement with the predicted values from CST MWS. Far-field peak gain and directivity of the ERA with AMPCS were measured in the Near-field Systems Inc. spherical near-field range, and compared with the predicated results in Fig. 9, verifying a significant improvement of 8.4 dB in the peak gain of the antenna, reaching to 19.42 dB at 11.3 GHz. According to the measurement, the 1 dB directivity and gain bandwidths are 6.4% and 5.9%, respectively, verifying stable far-field performance of the antenna system in a typical

Reference number	No. of microwave substrates	Prototyping cost	Weight (g)	Peak gain (dB)	1dB Gain bandwidth (%)
[12]	3	Very high	190	19.3	$\approx 3\%$
[13]	3	Very high	193	20.7	2.7 %
[15]	3	Very high	_	19.9	3.2%
[9]	8	Very high	335	20.2	$\approx 3\%$
This work	None	Very low	87	19.4	5.9 %

TABLE II
COMPARISON WITH A FEW RECENTLY PROPOSED PCS

frequency band required for Ku-Band applications.

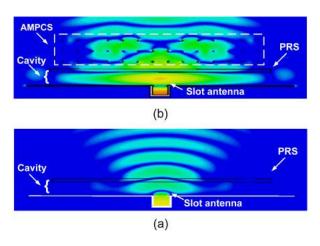


Fig. 10. A visualized comparison between the E-plane electric field distribution of the antenna, (a) in the absence of AMPCS, (b) in the presence of the AMPCS

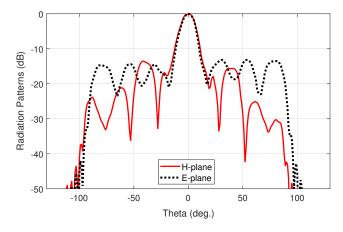


Fig. 11. Measured radiation patterns of the ERA under the APMCS loading.

The improved directivity and gain of the ERA with the AMPCS is achieved due to the enhanced phase distribution of the antenna aperture, which can be seen from the visualized electric field radiation in the E-plane, shown in Fig. 10. This radiation snapshot depicts the transformation of the spherical wavefront to a nearly planar wavefront of the E_y , significantly increasing the aperture efficiency of the antenna from 4% to 28%, because of the AMPCS. The transparency of the AMPCS can be estimated by inspecting the colors representing the intensity of the electric field at the input and output of

the AMPCS in Fig. 10. It can be observed that there are almost same colors (intensity) below and above the AMPCS, exhibiting a good transmission properties in addition to the phase correction. Radiation patterns of the antenna in two principal planes are plotted in Fig. 11 showing, SLLs of -13.2 and -13.5 dB in the E- and H-planes, respectively, suggesting around 8 dB improvement in the SLLs in the E-plane over the Bare ERA.

V. CONCLUSION

An industrially-justified approach has been proposed in this paper to rectify the near-field non-uniformity associated with the aperture antennas and successfully tested with an ERA. Unlike the first and second generations of the PCS, the proposed AMPCS neither requires expensive microwave substrates nor any bonding techniques, resulting in a substantially lower fabrication cost, removing the main industrial barrier to the ERAs applications. A prototype of AMPCS was fabricated using available laser cutting technology and placed at a sub-wavelength distance from the ERA. The AMPCS has significantly compensate the non-uniform phase-delay of the antenna aperture, resulting in a considerable increase of 8.4 dB in the peak gain of the antenna, reaching a peak gain of 19.42 with a 1 dB gain bandwidth of around 6%. The measured radiation patterns are quite stable with SLLs better than -13 in both E- and H- plane, respectively. The proposed freestanding AMPCS does not need any mechanical support or protection and can be used for other aperture antennas for near-field enhancement.

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Karu has authored approximately 600 research publications and his papers have been cited over 8,500 times. In 2018 alone his publications received 1123 citations. He is the first Australian antenna researcher ever to reach Google Scholar h-index of 30 and his citation indices have been among the top Australian antenna researchers for a long time (in November 2019: i10 is 166 and h-index is 44). Since 2002, his research team has been involved with research grants, contracts and PhD scholarships worth about 20 million dollars, including 15 Australian Research Council grants, without counting the 245 million-dollar SmartSat Corporative Research Centre, which started in 2019. His research has been supported by many national and international organisations including Australian Research Council, Intel, US Air Force, Cisco Systems, Hewlett-Packard, Australian Department of Defence, Australian Department of industry, and German and Indian governments.

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