# *G*-Band Micro-Fabricated Frequency-Steered Arrays With 2°/GHz Beam Steering

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*Abstract*—In this paper, we describe micro-fabricated frequency-scanned slot waveguide arrays operating between 130 and 180 GHz for planetary landing radar. The group delay dispersion of the feed line is increased by corrugating the bottom rectangular waveguide wall. Both 16-element and 32-element linear arrays are fed by micro-coaxial corporate feed networks to narrow the beam in the non-scanning direction. Two-dimensional (2-D) antenna arrays and feed networks are photo-lithographically fabricated using a sequential metal deposition process. The 16-by-21 array demonstrates a 6° beamwidth and 2°/GHz steering over a 40° scan angle.

*Index Terms*—Beam steering, *G*-band, millimeter-wave radar, planar antenna arrays.

## I. INTRODUCTION

I N STANDARD phased array antennas, phase shifters are typically used to control the direction of the main beam [1] and have been extensively used in communications and radar. Planetary landing radar, such as the ones recently used in the Curiosity mission to Mars, is a radar application where a phased array determines the height above the planet and the type of obstacles in the neighborhood of the landing site [2], [3]. A *Ka*-band phased array with 6 antennas, each 20 cm in diameter, totalling about  $1.5 \text{ m} \times 0.5 \text{ m} \times 8 \text{ cm}$  in size was used in this case [3], [4]. In order to reduce the size and mass for future planetary landing radar, the frequency can be increased to several hundred gigahertz, since the Mars atmosphere does not attenuate in this frequency range as much as the Earth's atmosphere.

Above W-band, phase shifters are nonexistent or lossy [5], and a frequency-scanned array requiring only a voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO), possibly with multipliers, becomes an attractive option [6]. However, large scan angles imply a broadband transmitter and receiver. Traveling-wave slotted dominant-mode rectangular waveguides have been used as frequency-scanned arrays at S-, X-, and Ka-bands, e.g.,

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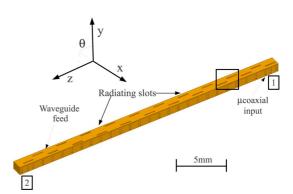


Fig. 1. Corrugated waveguide array geometry. The device is fed at port 1 from the bottom by a microfabricated coaxial line and terminated in a matched load at port 2. The corrugations are in the bottom waveguide wall. The spacing between adjacent slots is about half a wavelength at the center frequency.

[7]–[11], with 10 ° of scanning for 10% fractional frequency bandwidth. In [12], a 130–180 GHz frequency scanned array was demonstrated with close to 1°/GHz of steering by use of a standard waveguide feed. When bandwidth is not available, e.g., in the unlicensed ISM 2.4-GHz band with an allowable bandwidth of only 4%, dispersion can be introduced as was demonstrated in [13] with bandpass filters, at the expense of increased loss. Here, we build on the work presented in [12], but with doubled scanning bandwidth, enabled by a microfabricated slow-wave structure inside the traveling-wave feed. This particular implementation enables dense packaging of parallel waveguides with radiating slots into a 2-D array aperture free of grating lobes in the visible space.

In our microfabricated arrays, the bottom wall of the waveguide is corrugated, while the slots are placed on the top wall at a half-wavelength period at the center frequency. Both 16- and 32-element linear arrays are fed with micro-coaxial corporate feeds, enabling beam-narrowing in the non-scanning direction. The 2-D arrays are fabricated by use of a wafer-scale sequential metal deposition process [14], and their radiation patterns are characterized in a quasi-optical setup.

In the next section, the design of the linear frequency scanning arrays is presented, along with the design of the feed network for the 2-D arrays. In Section III, the fabrication method is detailed, followed by a summary of the measurements of S-parameters and radiation patterns.

## II. RIDGE WAVEGUIDE ANTENNA ARRAY DESIGN

The basic antenna array designed in this work is shown in Fig. 1. The lower waveguide wall has a corrugated ridge with a period d that is about  $\lambda_0/10$  ( $\lambda_0$  is the free-space wavelength) at

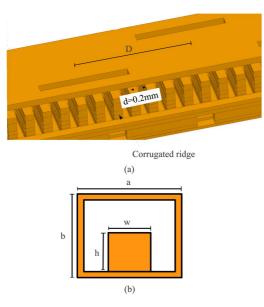


Fig. 2. (a) A detail of the ridge corrugations and the slot antennas from Fig. 1. (b) Cross section of the waveguide feed. The dimensions are  $a = 800 \ \mu \text{m}$ ,  $b = 675 \ \mu \text{m}$ ,  $w = 500 \ \mu \text{m}$ ,  $h = 375 \ \mu \text{m}$ .

the center of the operating frequency band, as shown in Fig. 2. The distance D between longitudinal slots in the top wall is about  $\lambda_0/2$  at the center frequency. The resulting traveling-wave array is fed by a microfabricated coaxial input and terminated in a matched impedance. The array beam scans in the H-plane, along the direction of the array, as the signal frequency varies over a large bandwidth.

The theory of periodically loaded microwave lines is discussed in [15], [16]. If a line is periodically loaded by sub-wavelength discontinuities, then Floquet–Bloch modes propagate in the structure and their propagation constant  $\beta_q$  is given by [15]:

$$\cos\beta_g d = \cos\beta_u d - \frac{b}{2}\sin\beta_u d \tag{1}$$

where  $\beta_u$  is the propagation constant in the uniform waveguide, d is the period of the discontinuities and b is the loading susceptance of the discontinuity, normalized to the characteristic impedance of the line. As a consequence of (1), the propagation constant  $\beta_g$  of the fundamental mode changes with frequency, thus increasing the scanning angle of the array. The scanning angle can be computed with the following formula [12]:

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_q} - \frac{\lambda_0}{2D} \tag{2}$$

where  $\lambda_g = 2\pi/\beta_g$  and  $\lambda_0 = 2\pi/\beta_0$  and D is the distance between subsequent slots. In the device described in this work a periodic discontinuity is obtained by modulating the height hof the waveguide ridge. The expected scan angle for a uniform slot array, as estimated by using (2), is shown in Fig. 3. The waveguide used in the simulations is  $a = 800 \,\mu\text{m}$  wide and b = $675 \,\mu\text{m}$  tall. The ridge in the uniform feedline is  $w = 500 \,\mu\text{m}$ wide and  $h = 375 \,\mu\text{m}$  tall. The period of the corrugation was  $d = 200 \,\mu\text{m}$ . The array scan angle per unit frequency increases with the waveguide wall corrugation depth, as visible in Fig. 3.

The radiating slot elements in the final device are 1 mm long and 0.1 mm wide. Standard slotted-waveguide design

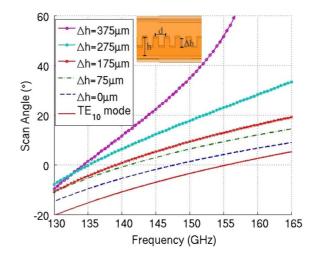


Fig. 3. Theoretical scan angle for different corrugation depths. The waveguide and ridge dimensions are reported in the caption of Fig. 2. The distance between the slots is assumed  $d = 1.294 \ \mu m$ . The line with the deepest corrugation,  $\Delta h = 375 \ \mu m$ , is used in the final design. The scan angle for the  $TE_{10}$  mode in a standard WR-5 rectangular waveguide is plotted for comparison.

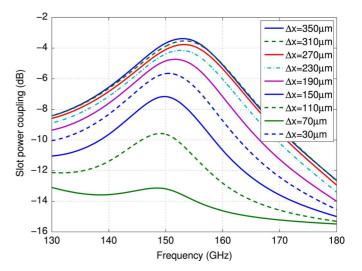


Fig. 4. Coupled power into a single longitudinal slot fed by a single-ridged waveguide as a function of frequency. The waveguide is 800  $\mu$ m wide and 675  $\mu$ m tall. The ridge is 500  $\mu$ m wide and 375  $\mu$ m tall. The slot offset  $\Delta x$  with respect to the feed center is controlled to tune the amount of coupling.

techniques were employed here to position the slots, in order to maximize gain and bandwidth. Following [17], the slot to slot distance is set to  $\lambda_0/2$ , where  $\lambda_0$  is the signal free-space wavelength.

To synthesize the array aperture, an equivalent circuit representation for the radiating slots was adopted in this work. Initially full-wave simulations were employed to derive the equivalent circuit representation of a single slot. The power coupling for a single slot as a function of frequency and slot offset was simulated in HFSS<sup>TM1</sup> and the result is shown in Fig. 4. The amount of coupling was extracted from the scattering parameters of a short waveguide section feeding a single slot and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Certain commercial software, equipment, instruments, and materials are identified in this paper to foster understanding. Such identification does not imply recommendation or endorsement by the National Institute of Standards and Technology, nor does it imply that the software, the material, or the equipment are necessarily the best available for the purpose.

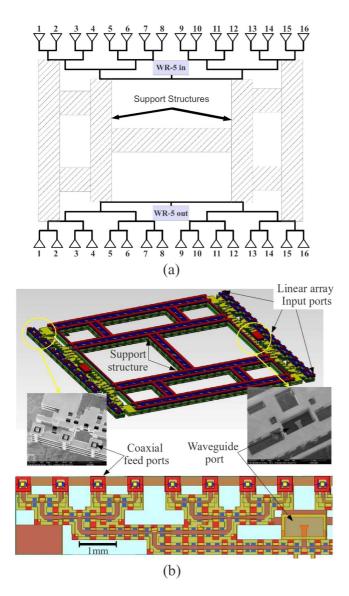


Fig. 5. Layout of the  $\mu$  coaxial dividing network used as a feed for the 16 linear arrays each with 21 radiating slots. An identical dividing network was used to terminate the 16 arrays into a standard WR-5 matched load.

calculated as  $1 - |S_{11}|^2 - |S_{21}|^2$ . The results from the fullwave single-slot simulations where used in a circuit model to numerically optimize the design parameters for simultaneous impedance matching at the array terminations, high array radiation efficiency and specified array beam shape. In particular to design a uniform array the slot coupling in the final design was increased progressively for slot elements located further from the input port of the array. The final linear arrays were further simulated in HFSS<sup>TM</sup> for verification and further optimization.

In order to build the planar-array prototype, multiple linear arrays need to be fed in phase. The 1:16  $\mu$ coaxial feed shown in Fig. 5 was used for this purpose. The design is a standard 50  $\Omega$  corporate network with stepped impedances [18]. The feed has less than 9 dB of return loss from 130 to 155 GHz, as shown in Fig. 6 and it is terminated into a  $\mu$ coaxial to waveguide vertical transition [19] with better than 10 dB of return loss from 130 to 180 GHz. The resonances visible in Fig. 6 are simulations artifacts and they were absent from the measured prototypes. The

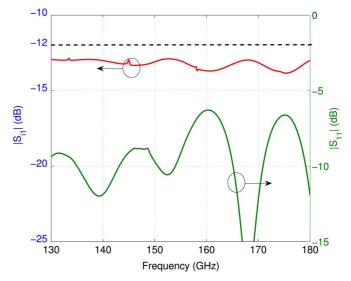


Fig. 6. Simulated transmission and return loss of the  $\mu$  coaxial feed network. The feed network has better than 9 dB of return loss from 130 to 155 GHz. The simulation includes copper loss, which contributes to about 1 dB of loss relative to the -12 dB transmission coefficient value for a 1:16 divider. The simulation showed a spread of  $\pm 0.5$  dB in the transmission coefficients  $S_{i1}$  because of numerical errors.

same dividing network was used to terminate the arrays onto a single waveguide load. The array output port was terminated into a WR-5 transition that was used both to terminate the traveling-wave arrays and for S-parameter testing. An alternative solution including multiple micromachined loads to terminate the antenna arrays is also being investigated.

The  $\mu$ coaxial-to-ridge waveguide transition shown in Fig. 7 was designed to connect the array to the feed network. The  $\mu$ coaxial line is inserted through the bottom wall of the waveguide, while the center conductor is terminated above the waveguide ridge into a square section at 100  $\mu$ m from the top wall. The distance between the transition and the waveguide back short as well as the size of the square termination were optimized for impedance matching. HFSS<sup>TM</sup> simulations show better than 12 dB of return loss for this transition from 130 to 180 GHz.

### **III. DEVICE FABRICATION**

The device was fabricated in PolyStrata®, a photolithographically defined, sequential layer deposition process [14]. The  $\mu$ coaxial lines and ridge waveguides were fabricated by depositing uniform layers of copper over a dielectric substrate and using a photoresist to define the  $\mu$  coaxial shape. The thickness of each layer can range from 5 to 100  $\mu$ m and up to 15 layers can be deposited. The specific layers used in this work are shown in Fig. 8. At the end of the process the photoresist was removed from the structure via release holes, leaving a low-loss, air-filled  $\mu$ coaxial line or waveguide. In order to achieve optimum performance, the position of the release holes must be designed with minimal impact on RF performance, but with sufficient density to allow complete removal of the photoresist. During the fabrication process, small straps of a dielectric polymer are deposited to provide support for the coaxial center conductor, once the photoresist is released. For

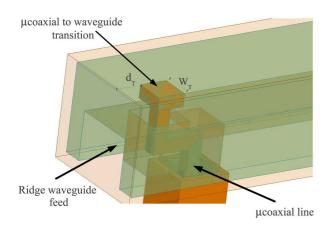


Fig. 7. Geometry of the  $\mu$  coaxial to ridge waveguide transition. The  $\mu$  coaxial inner conductor coming out of the ridge is terminated into a wider cap for impedance match. The size of the termination and the distance from the waveguide back-short is optimized for impedance match. The optimized dimensions were  $w_T = 200 \ \mu m$  and  $d_T = 350 \ \mu m$ .

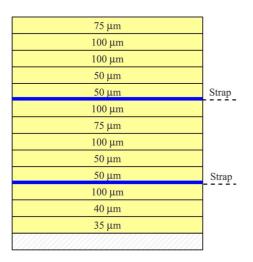


Fig. 8. Copper layer structure used in this work. The positions of the dielectric straps are indicated in blue.

the waveguide section the center line and dielectric straps are not needed, and it is straightforward to introduce corrugations in the bottom wall.

The release holes in the fabricated device were carefully placed to reduce the impact on the antenna radiation. The size of the release holes is 200  $\mu$ m×100  $\mu$ m on the side wall. No release holes were required on the top wall, because the radiating slots act as release holes as well. The final 16×21 element prototype, shown in Fig. 9, was mounted on a brass fixture with WR-5 waveguide through-vias to mate with standard waveguide flanges. A detail of the device is shown in Fig. 10.

# **IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**

The radiation patterns of the antenna array were characterized in a quasi-optical measurement setup [12], [20] shown in Fig. 11. A tunable Gunn diode oscillator followed by a frequency doubler was used as a source. The source output was radiated by a scalar feed horn, collimated by a lens and reflected by a mirror into a polarizing beam splitter. The resulting linearly polarized beam was sent to the array under test, terminated into a *G*-band detector. The array under test was mounted on

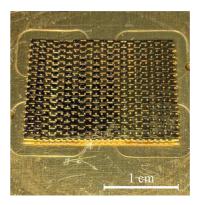


Fig. 9. Photograph of the fabricated 16×21 elements scanning array prototype.

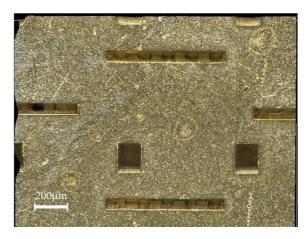


Fig. 10. Detail of the array prototype, showing the slots and the corrugated waveguide underneath.

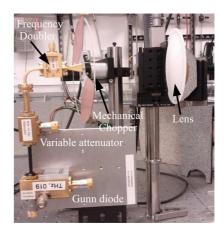


Fig. 11. Detail of the quasi-optical measurement setup for array radiation pattern measurements.

a computer-controlled azimuth-elevation stage for beam-scanning. The experimental setup is suitable to measure complex 2-D antenna patterns in both amplitude and in phase as discussed in [20]. However, in this work only the pattern amplitude was characterized.

To obtain the gain of the array under test, a calibration was performed by using a standard gain horn as a reference, as discussed in more detail in [12]. The horn used in this work had a nominal gain between 22 and 23.6 dBi in the 130–180 GHz range, as verified with HFSS® simulations.

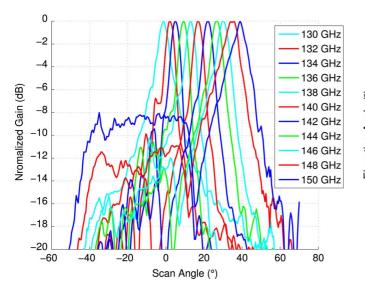


Fig. 12. Measured normalized H-plane beams for the  $16 \times 21$  element array from Fig. 9.

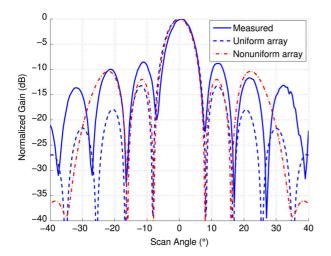


Fig. 13. Measured E-plane beam at 130 GHz for the  $16 \times 21$  element array from Fig. 9. The dashed line is a simulation corresponding to the ideal case of a uniform in-phase excitation of each elementary linear array. The dot-dash line is a simulation for a nonuniform excitation caused by 12 dB input return loss for the linear arrays and the resulting standing wave.

The fabricated prototype was tested and the measured beams from 130 to 150 GHz are shown in Fig. 12. The array scans from  $-1^{\circ}$  to 39° from 130 to 150 GHz, resulting in a 2°/GHz scanning angle per unit frequency and in good agreement with the theoretical predictions and simulations. This is also twice the value that has been reported with a regular slotted waveguide array [12] in the same frequency range, thus requiring half the bandwidth for the VCO. The measured 3-dB beamwidth is about  $6^{\circ}$  wide in the elevation plane and  $6.5^{\circ}$  to  $9^{\circ}$  wide in the azimuth plane, depending on the frequency. A typical E-plane pattern is shown in Fig. 13. The beam scans mainly in the array H-plane, as expected, and moves by 5° at most in the E-plane. Full-wave simulations of the planar array were not possible, due to computational complexity, and therefore in Fig. 13 we compare the measured results with a linear array simulation multiplied by the appropriate (uniform) array factor. The difference in side lobes could be attributed to a nonuniform excitation due to impedance

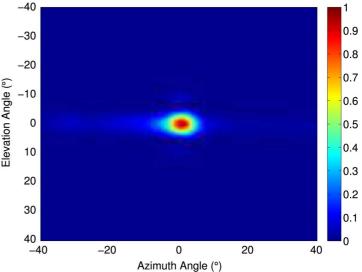


Fig. 14. Measured normalized 2-D radiation pattern plot at 130 GHz shown on a linear scale. The 3-dB beamwidth is  $6^{\circ}$  in the elevation plane.

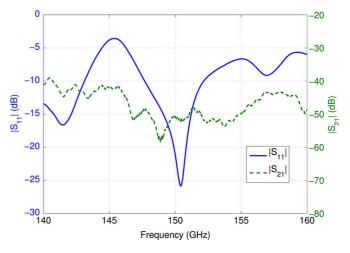


Fig. 15. Measured transmission and return loss for the  $16 \times 21$  element array from Fig. 9. The transmission measurement shows that little power is dissipated into the load.

mismatch and, possibly, fabrication tolerances. The measured 2-D pattern at 130 GHz is plotted in Fig. 14 and shows a pencil beam, as expected.

The array S-parameters were measured with an Agilent PNA-X microwave network analyzer connected to Rohde and Schwarz millimeter-wave converters with a range of 140 to 220 GHz. Calibration was performed using a thru/offset short/short/match WR-5 kit. The array had less than 10 dB return loss from 130 to 143 GHz and from 147 to 160 GHz, as shown in Fig. 15. A peak in the reflected power is visible at 145 GHz and it is due to the  $\mu$ coaxial feed network, seen also in Fig. 6. The measured gain and scan angle are shown in Fig. 16 and compared with HFSS<sup>TM</sup> simulations of a single linear array multiplied by an ideal array factor to obtain the planar device beams. Test structures were also measured to characterize and calibrate the losses in the feed. The measured results are in good agreement with the simulations (within 2 dB for the gain and within 0.5 ° for the scan angle). The measured patterns

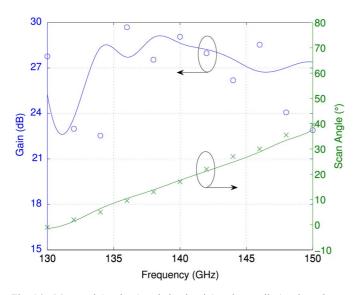


Fig. 16. Measured (markers) and simulated (continuous line) gain and scan angle for the array from Fig. 9.

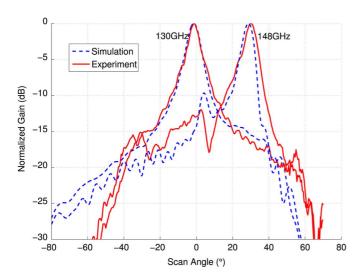
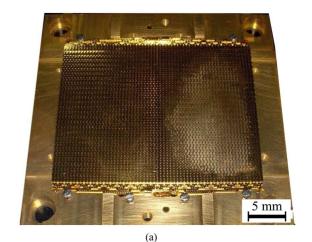


Fig. 17. Measured beams (continuous line) for the  $16 \times 21$  element array from Fig. 9 at 130 and 148 GHz compared with full-wave simulations (dashed line).

at two typical frequencies are shown in detail in Fig. 17 and compared with the simulations.

#### V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The traveling-wave slotted-waveguide array is scalable to some degree, since the number of elements is limited by the ability to obtain uniform excitation across the array length. In order to test the scalability of the design procedure in size as well as in frequency, we designed and fabricated a  $5\times5$  cm array, shown in Fig. 18. The new device has  $32\times32$  slots and operated between 150 and 180 GHz. The measured beams are shown in Fig. 19. The scanning angle is increased to about  $60^{\circ}$ , because of the increased bandwidth, while the scanning per unit frequency is about  $2.1^{\circ}/\text{GHz}$ . The beamwidth is now reduced to  $3.2^{\circ}$ , as can be predicted given the size of the array. However the new device is characterized by higher sidelobes, a consequence of the nonuniform excitation of the slot elements.



106.47µm ;

(b) Fig. 18. (a) Photograph of the fabricated 32×32 elements scanning array prototype. (b) Detail of the corporate feed network.

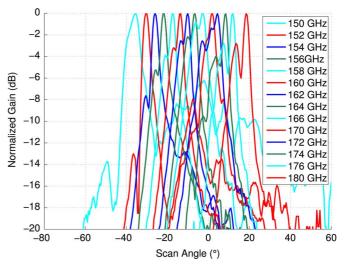


Fig. 19. Measured beams for the  $32 \times 32$ -element array from Fig. 18.

The gain and scan angle of the new device are shown in Fig. 20. In summary, in this work planar microfabricated slot antenna arrays operating at *G*-band have been discussed. A  $2 \times 2$  cm antenna array having a scan angle of about 40° from 130 to 150 GHz with a 6° beamwidth was shown. A wide scan angle is obtained by periodically corrugating the ridge in the feed line in order to increase the signal dispersion in the band of interest. The array is fabricated in PolyStrata®, gold-plated and connected to a standard WR-5 flange through a custom fixture. The slot offsets are arranged to achieve an approximately

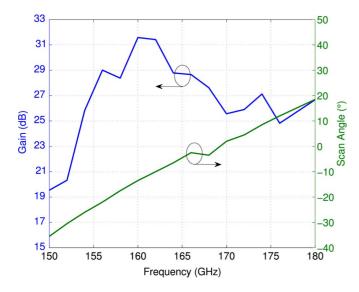


Fig. 20. Measured gain and angle for the  $32 \times 32$  element array from Fig. 18.

uniform slot excitation and low sidelobes over the whole frequency range and a  $\mu$  coaxial feed network is used to feed the planar array. The devices have potential applications to space exploration and planetary landing radar.

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