

# Review of Impulse-Radiating Antennas

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## Abstract

This paper reviews the progress to date concerning a special class of antennas known collectively as impulse-radiating antennas (IRAs). These are especially suited for radiating very fast pulses in a narrow beam. A fast-rising step-like signal into the antenna gives an approximate delta-function response in the far field. The frequency spectrum of the radiated pulse can be very broad (decades of band ratio). The requisite synthesis of the step-rising plane wave on the antenna aperture can be realized in various ways, including a TEM fed reflector (reflector IRA), TEM (horn) fed lens (lens IRA), and special kinds of arrays (array IRA). Such antennas have application as high-power pulse radiators, transient radars, and antennas capable of operating on many frequencies simultaneously (due to the large band ratio).

## 1. Introduction

Of the various types of antennas for radiating and/or receiving transient pulses, we here are concerned with a special class which are known as impulse-radiating antennas (IRAs). Basically, this type of antenna has the property that, in transmission, a fast-rising (step-like) field as a plane wave on the antenna aperture produces an impulse-like far field [2: Baum, 1989]. This can be achieved in various ways, the details of which are treated later. For large antenna apertures fed by a single source (pulsar) an efficient design uses a conical transmission line terminated at and feeding a paraboloidal reflector. An alternate design has a conical transmission line (TEM horn) feeding a lens with a special resistive termination to the rear of the antenna; for large antennas the lens can be quite massive, but for small antennas this type of design is quite practical. A third approach is a transient array involving many sources feeding an aperture in a manner which purposely has continuity of current from each array element to

appropriate adjacent ones so as to achieve efficient radiation, even for wavelengths large compared to element spacing (but smaller than array linear dimensions) [1: Baum, 1997].

From a historical point of view much of this technology developed out of the nuclear electromagnetic-pulse (EMP) research, specifically that associated with the large antenna and pulser systems known as EMP simulators used for testing electronic systems [1: Baum, 1978; 1: Smith and Aslin, 1978; 1: Baum, 1992]. The conical transmission waves are a common feature. Instead of feeding into a cylindrical transmission line or distributed terminator, the conical transmission line now feeds a reflector or lens to produce a plane wave at the antenna aperture. However, such lenses have also been considered for use with EMP simulators [7: Baum, 1967]. Now, for the IRAs, one is concerned with faster rising pulses, but the antennas are smaller than typical EMP simulators. So things scale and the basic scientific concepts are, at least in part, the same.

While the motivation for developing IRA systems has often been to radiate large-amplitude, large-band-ratio (decade or more), undispersed pulses at electronic systems (and develop hardening against such environments), it is recognized that such antenna systems have various other uses as well. In the remote-sensing arena such antennas are appropriate for transient radars, including for buried targets (mines and unexploded ordnance (UXO)). Some consideration has also been given to the possible use for ionospheric research [2: Giri, 1996]. Since IRAs have such a large band ratio (ratio of upper to lower useful or roll-off frequencies), they are also being investigated for continuous-wave (CW) application, in which multiple channels/functions (communications, radar, etc.) use the same antenna [3: Farr et al, 1997].

There is now a large literature on the subject of IRAs; the present paper is intended to summarize our knowledge of this subject. There are a number of papers which review portions of this technology and these are grouped together in Section 1 of the Bibliography. With such an extensive literature it is convenient to end this paper with a bibliography which is divided according to subject areas. For reference to papers in this bibliography, the authors are preceded by a number, indicating the bibliographic section.

## 2. Aperture Fields for Impulse -Radiating Antennas

In the normal configuration of an IRA, a focused aperture field is turned on suddenly over the entire aperture, all at the same time. This idealized step-function time dependence is well approximated by actual sources that are currently available, although the risetime of a real source is always non-zero. So if one knows the field radiated by an ideal (step-function) source, one can convolve that result with the derivative of the actual source to obtain the actual field. Thus, we consider here the field radiated by an ideal step-function source. General papers relating to the radiation from a planar aperture appear in Section 2 of the Bibliography. The special case of a circular aperture is included as Section 9 of the Bibliography.

Consider the aperture shown in Figure 2.1. The field in the aperture is represented by  $\vec{E}_t(x', y')$ , with a step-function time dependence that turns on uniformly over the entire aperture. This leads to a radiated field in the far field of [2: Baum, 1989]

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, s) = \frac{1}{2\pi r} \iint_{S_a} \gamma \left[ \vec{1}_z \times \vec{E}_t(x', y', s) \times \vec{1}_R \right] e^{-\gamma R} dS' \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\gamma = s/c$ ,  $s$  is the Laplace transform variable,  $c$  is the speed of light in free space, and  $\vec{1}_R$  is the vector from the origin of the aperture out to the observation point. This expression simplifies under the assumption that we are looking on boresight (in the  $z$ -direction). So the radiated field on boresight in the far field simplifies to

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, s) = \frac{1}{2\pi r c} \frac{d}{dt} \iint_{S_a} \vec{E}_t(x', y', t - r/c) dS' = \frac{\delta_a(t - r/c)}{2\pi r c} \iint_{S_a} \vec{E}_t(x', y') dx' dy' \quad (2.2)$$

where the  $\delta_a(t)$  function is an approximate Dirac delta function whose area is unity, but whose magnitude increases proportional to  $r$ , and whose width is inversely proportional to  $r$  [2: Baum, 1989]. So the combination of  $\delta_a(t)/r$  has a constant height, even in the limit as  $r$  becomes small. A clarification of the shape of the approximate delta function for various aperture fields is provided in [2: Baum, 1997a]. Other treatments of the exact shape of the delta function are found in [3: Mikheev, 1997] and [3: Skulkin and Turchin, 1997].

The tangential field in the aperture can be expressed as a field between two or more conductors with a potential difference  $V_o$  between them. Examples of two-wire and four-wire apertures are shown in Figure 2.1. It is convenient to represent the aperture field as a complex number, whose real and imaginary parts correspond to the  $x$  and  $y$  components. This complex field is expressed in terms of a complex potential function. Thus,

$$E(x, y) = E(\zeta) = E_x - jE_y = -\frac{V_o}{\Delta u} \frac{dw(\zeta)}{d\zeta} \quad (2.3)$$

$$\zeta = x + jy \quad , \quad w(\zeta) = u(\zeta) + jv(\zeta) \quad , \quad f_g = \Delta u / \Delta v$$

where the complex potential function can be found in [2: Baum, 1991]. In the above formulation,  $\Delta v$  is the change in  $v$  around one of the conductors, and  $\Delta u$  is the difference in  $u$  from one conductor to the other. It was also shown that the radiated field on boresight is [2: Baum, 1991]

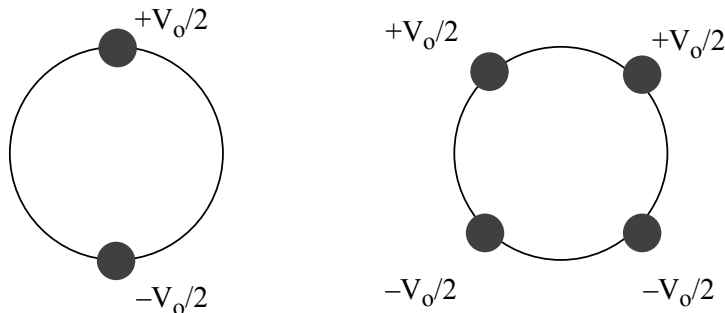


Figure 2.1. The apertures for a two-wire and four-wire configuration.

$$E^{rad}(r,t) = \frac{V_o}{r} \frac{h_a}{2\pi c f_g} \delta_a(t-r/c)$$

$$h_a = -\frac{f_g}{V_o} \iint_{S_a} E_y(x,y) dx dy = -\frac{1}{\Delta v} \oint_{C_a} v(y) dy \quad (2.4)$$

In the above equation,  $S_a$  is the portion of the aperture that is not blocked by the feed, and  $C_a$  is the contour around this aperture. All contour integrals are taken in the positive (counterclockwise) direction. For a two-wire aperture, shown in Figure 2.1, a high-impedance approximation was made, and the portion of the contour integral along the conducting wire was assumed very small. Under this approximation the integral is calculated as  $h_a = D/2$ . For the four-wire aperture case, also shown in Figure 2.1, symmetry can be used to sum two two-wire apertures, since each pair of opposing wires perturbs the field of the other pair only slightly.

Having described the impulse response on boresight, we now consider the off-boresight case. As an example, we consider the four-wire aperture of Figure 2.1. The first step is to find the fields in the aperture. To do so, we must first find the potential function that describes these fields. The potential function for the two-wire problem is well known,

$$w_2(\zeta) = 2j \operatorname{arccot}(\zeta/a) = \ln\left(\frac{\zeta/a - j}{\zeta/a + j}\right) \quad (2.5)$$

where the charge centers are located at  $(x=0, y/a = \pm 1)$ . Here,  $\zeta = x + jy$  is the location in the Cartesian coordinate space. This potential function was plotted in [2: Baum, 1991]. The complex potential for the four-wire case is just a sum of two two-wire potentials that have been shifted and resized, i.e.,

$$w_4(\zeta) = w_2(\sqrt{2}\zeta/a + 1) + w_2(\sqrt{2}\zeta/a - 1) \quad (2.6)$$

This function is complex, i.e., has both real and imaginary parts. Let us therefore set

$$u(\zeta) = \operatorname{Re}(w_4(\zeta)) \quad , \quad v(\zeta) = \operatorname{Im}(w_4(\zeta)) \quad (2.7)$$

We can plot contours of constant  $u$  and  $v$ , and these are shown in Figure 2.2 for the upper right quadrant. The conductors correspond to a contour of constant  $u$ .

To calculate the radiated field, we need the aperture fields and the normalized aperture potentials. First, we find the aperture field is

$$E_y(x,y) = \frac{-V_o}{\Delta u} \frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial y} \quad , \quad f_{g4} = \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta v} \quad (2.8)$$

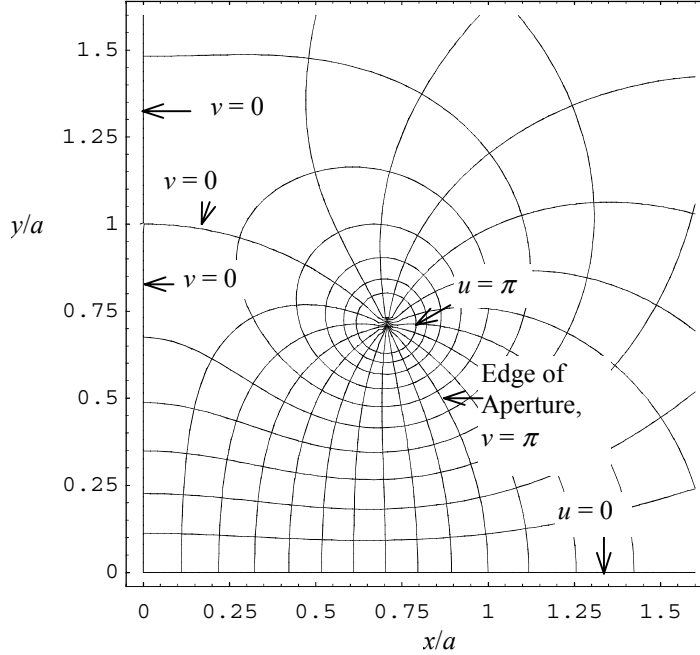


Figure 2.2. Contour map for  $w_4(\zeta)$ . Increments for  $u$  and  $v$  are  $\pi/10$ .

where  $V_0$  is the voltage difference between the top and bottom conductors. In addition,  $\Delta u$  is the difference in  $u$  between the two conductors, and  $\Delta v$  is the difference in  $v$  as one encircles one pair of positive (or negative) electrodes. Finally, the normalized aperture impedance is  $f_{g4} = Z_{feed}/Z_0$ , where  $Z_0$  is the impedance of free space. Note that  $f_{g4}$  is the normalized impedance for four arms and  $f_{g2}$  is the normalized impedance for two arms on opposite sides of a unit circle. Note also that for thin wire arms,  $f_{g4} = f_{g2}/2$ .

Next, we find the normalized potentials, which are integrals of electric field over linear paths in the aperture plane. The normalized potential for the H-plane calculation is

$$\Phi^{(h)}(x) = -\frac{1}{V_0} \int_{C_1(x)} E_y dy \quad (2.9)$$

where the contour  $C_1(x)$  is a vertical line cut through the aperture plane, as shown in Figure 2.3. To simplify this, use the above two equations, generating

$$\Phi^{(h)}(x) = \frac{1}{\Delta u} \int_{C_1(x)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy = \frac{2}{\Delta u} u\left(x, \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}\right) \quad (2.10)$$

We can now calculate  $u(x,y)$  as the real part of the potential function given in (2.6). Note that the value of  $u(x,y)$  is a maximum when it cuts through the conductors. At this point, the value of  $u(x,y)$  is  $u_0 = \pi f_{g2} = 2\pi f_{g4}$ , where  $f_{g4}$  is the normalized impedance for four arms (typically

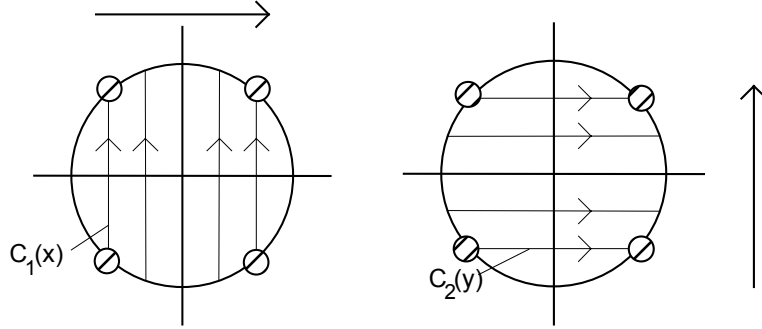


Figure 2.3. Locations of  $C_1(x)$  and  $C_2(y)$ .

200  $\Omega$ /377  $\Omega$ ). Note also that for values of  $x$  that cut through the conductors, the normalized potential is unity. This normalized potential function is plotted in Figure 2.4, on the left, for a few different values of  $f_g$ .

The normalized potential for the E-plane is expressed as

$$\Phi^{(e)}(y) = -\frac{1}{V_o} \int_{C_2(y)} E_y dx = \frac{1}{\Delta u} \int_{C_2(y)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dx \quad (2.11)$$

where  $C_2(y)$  is a horizontal linear cut through the aperture plane, as shown in Figure 2.3. To evaluate this, we require the Cauchy-Riemann relation for analytic functions,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \quad (2.12)$$

We can now recast the integral as

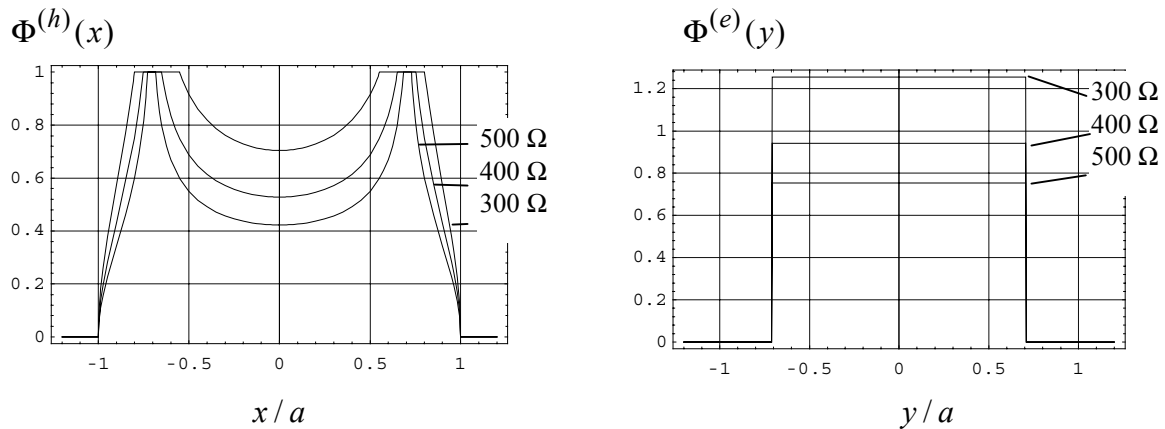


Figure 2.4. The normalized potential functions,  $\Phi^{(h)}(x)$  and  $\Phi^{(e)}(y)$ , for a few different impedances.

$$\Phi^{(e)}(y) = \frac{-2}{\Delta u} \left[ v \left( \sqrt{a^2 - y^2}, y \right) - v(0, y) \right] \quad (2.13)$$

This is a particularly simple form, because the edges of the circular aperture are also lines of constant  $v$ . Thus, the normalized potential is evaluated analytically as

$$\Phi^{(e)}(y) = \begin{cases} 1/(2fg_4) & 0 \leq |y|/a < 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (2.14)$$

We have plotted the normalized potentials for a few impedances in Figure 2.4, on the right. Note that our theory predicts an abrupt discontinuity in  $\Phi^{(e)}(y)$  near the wires. In fact, there is actually a more smooth transition between the two values, but if the wire is thin, this is an excellent approximation.

With the normalized potentials calculated, we can now calculate the radiated field as a function of angle off boresight in the H and E-planes. The aperture field is created by a step voltage of magnitude  $V_o$  across the aperture, so from [3: Farr, 1993] we find

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E}_{step}^{(h)}(r, \theta, t) &= \vec{1}_y \frac{-V_o}{r} \frac{\cot(\theta)}{2\pi} \Phi^{(h)}\left(\frac{ct}{\sin(\theta)}\right) \\ \vec{E}_{step}^{(e)}(r, \theta, t) &= \pm \vec{1}_\theta \frac{-V_o}{r} \frac{1}{2\pi \sin(\theta)} \Phi^{(e)}\left(\frac{ct}{\sin(\theta)}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (2.15)$$

This completes the calculation of the step response radiation for a full 4-wire aperture, while it is still focused. To find the response to a standard Gaussian pulse, we convolve the above step response with the derivative of the time domain driving voltage.

### 3. IRA Performance in Transmission and Reception

In order to define figures of merit in the time domain, we must express the radiated and received fields in terms of the incident voltage (in transmission) and the incident field (in reception). The diagrams showing the relevant quantities are shown in Figure 3.1. Note that there is a resistive load that is matched to the characteristic impedance of any feed transmission line attached to the antenna port. (This will also be matched to the IRA feed, which is itself a conical transmission line.) This is analogous to the use of scattering parameters in circuit theory. Papers relating to transient gain, figures of merit, and reciprocity appear in Section 6 of the Bibliography.

First we describe the relevant equations in the frequency domain. Because of the resistive termination matched to the feed line, which in turn is matched to the antenna, in transmission  $V_f(t) = V_s(t)/2$ . Instead of referring to port voltages, we will refer to voltage waves, in the spirit of  $S$ -parameters in microwave theory. Thus, the transmitted and radiated fields are [6: Baum, 1991]

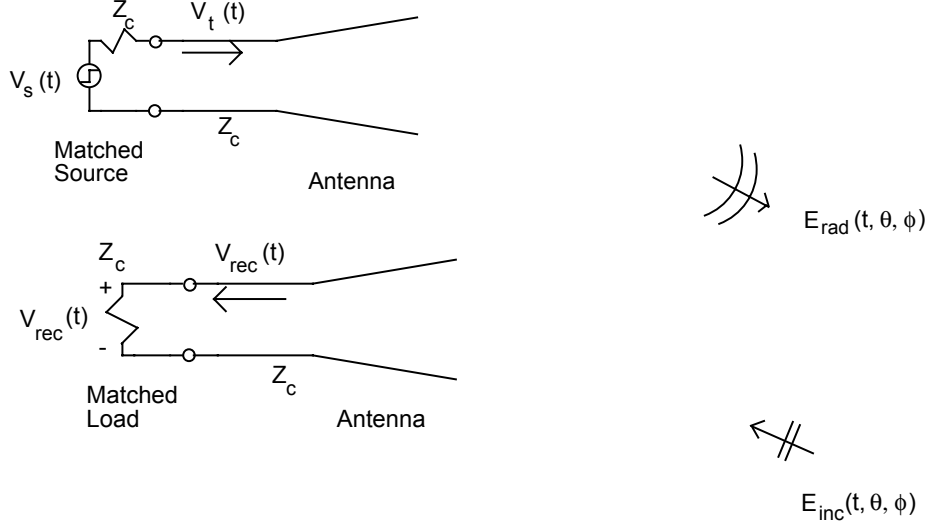


Figure 3.1. A transient antenna in transmit mode (top) and receive mode (bottom).

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Transmit} \quad \vec{E}_{rad}(\vec{r}, s) &= \frac{e^{-\gamma r}}{r} \vec{F}_t(\vec{1}_r, s) \vec{V}_t(s) \\
 \text{Receive} \quad \vec{V}_{rec}(s) &= \vec{h}_t(\vec{1}_i, s) \circ \vec{E}_{inc}(s) \\
 \text{Reciprocity} \quad \vec{F}_t(\vec{1}_r, s) &= \frac{s\mu_o}{2\pi Z_c} \vec{h}_t(-\vec{1}_r, s), \quad \vec{1}_i \cdot \vec{h}_t = 0 \\
 \vec{1}_r &= \vec{1} - \vec{1}_r \vec{1}_r, \quad \vec{1} = \vec{1}_x \vec{1}_x + \vec{1}_y \vec{1}_y + \vec{1}_z \vec{1}_z,
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

where  $\vec{1}_r$  is the direction of radiation. The time domain analogs of these equations are

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Transmit} \quad r \vec{E}_{rad}(\vec{r}, t) &= \left[ \int_0^t \vec{F}_t(\vec{1}_r, t') dt' \right] \circ \frac{dV_t(t-r/c)}{dt} \\
 \text{Receive} \quad V_{rec}(t) &= \vec{h}_t(\vec{1}_i, t) \circ \vec{E}_{inc}(t) \\
 \text{Reciprocity} \quad \vec{F}_t(\vec{1}_r, t) &= \frac{\mu_o}{2\pi Z_c} \frac{d}{dt} \vec{h}_t(-\vec{1}_r, t)
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

where the  $\circ$  operator indicates a convolution and the dot product convolution operator  $\circ$  implies a sum of the convolution of each component of the vectors. Note that the units of  $\vec{h}(t)$  are meters/second. Note also that the function  $\int_0^t \vec{F}_t(\vec{1}_r, t') dt'$  is the step response in transmission, which has been characterized for reflector IRAs (earlier in this paper) and for TEM horns by [4: Farr and Baum, 1992]. Finally, note that  $\vec{h}_t(\vec{1}_r, t)$  is just the step response in transmission times some constants.



There is a general class of figures of merit for time domain radiators, which we refer to as FM. To find the FM, we drive the antenna with a standard waveshape, such as the integral of a Gaussian (in transmission) or a Gaussian (in reception). Because of the above reciprocity relationship in the time domain we can establish a correlation between the transmit and receive cases. The FM is defined in terms of norms as

$$\begin{array}{cc}
 \text{Transmission} & \text{Reception} \\
 FM(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{f_g}} \frac{\|V_{rec}(t)\|}{\left\| \vec{E}_{inc}(\theta, \phi, t) \cdot \vec{1}_e \right\|}, & FM(\theta, \phi) = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2\pi c \sqrt{f_g} \left\| r \vec{E}_{rad}(\theta, \phi, t) \cdot \vec{1}_e \right\|}{\|dV_{inc}(t)/dt\|} \quad (3.3)
 \end{array}$$

where  $\vec{1}_e$  is one of two orthogonal polarizations. The above two definitions are guaranteed to be equal if the driving voltage waveshape in transmission is the integral of the incident electric field in reception. One can think of the norm of a function as one of several commonly used characteristics of a time domain function, such as the peak of the function ( $\infty$ -norm), the integral of magnitude of the function (1-norm), or the square root of “energy” in the function (2-norm). By way of review, a norm must satisfy three fundamental properties,

$$\|f(t)\| \begin{cases} = 0 & \text{iff } f(t) \equiv 0 \\ > 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad \|\alpha f(t)\| = |\alpha| \|f(t)\|, \quad \|f(t) + g(t)\| \leq \|f(t)\| + \|g(t)\| \quad (3.4)$$

A commonly used norm is the p-norm, which is defined as

$$\|f(t)\|_p \equiv \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)|^p dt \right)^{1/p}, \quad \|f(t)\|_{\infty} \equiv \sup_t |f(t)|, \quad (3.5)$$

The choice of the norm will usually be tied to the experimental system. Thus, if a transient radar receiver responds to the peak magnitude of the received signal, then one should use the  $\infty$ -norm in the figure of merit definition.

Another useful way of looking at the parameters of an IRA is to consider the relationship of the impulse response,  $\vec{h}_t(\theta, \phi)$  to the standard definitions of gain and effective area. We begin with the standard expressions in the frequency domain. Thus, the received power is

$$\tilde{P}_{rec} = \tilde{A}_{eff} \tilde{S}^{(inc)} \quad (3.6)$$

where  $\tilde{S}^{(inc)}$  is the incident power density in  $\text{W}/\text{m}^2$  and  $A_{eff}$  is the effective aperture. Gain is related to effective aperture by

$$\tilde{A}_{eff} = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi} \tilde{G} \quad (3.7)$$

Combining the above two equations, we have

$$\tilde{P}_r = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi} \tilde{G} \tilde{S}^{(inc)} \quad (3.8)$$

Take the square root, and recast into voltages

$$\frac{\tilde{V}_r}{\sqrt{Z_c}} = \frac{\lambda \sqrt{\tilde{G}}}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{E^{(inc)}}{\sqrt{Z_o}} \quad (3.9)$$

where  $Z_o$  is the impedance of free space, and  $Z_c$ , the feed or input impedance, is assumed a positive constant. . Thus, the final result in the frequency domain is

$$\tilde{V}_r = \frac{\lambda \sqrt{\tilde{G} f_g}}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \tilde{E}^{(inc)} \quad (3.10)$$

where  $f_g = Z_c/Z_o$ .

Let us now compare the above equation to one that we have been using in the time domain, where we restrict the consideration to boresight for which symmetry allows us to scalarize the problem as

$$\tilde{V}_r(t) = h_t(t) \circ \tilde{E}^{(inc)}(t) \quad (3.11)$$

We routinely have already measured  $h_t(t)$ , so we just have to rescale to get gain. Converting this to the frequency domain, we have

$$\tilde{V}_r(j\omega) = \tilde{h}_t(\omega) \tilde{E}^{(inc)}(j\omega) \quad (3.12)$$

Now compare (3.10) and (3.12), to get

$$\boxed{\tilde{G}(\omega) = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda^2} \frac{|\tilde{h}_t(j\omega)|^2}{f_g} = \frac{4\pi f^2}{c^2} \frac{|\tilde{h}_t(j\omega)|^2}{f_g}} \quad (3.13)$$

We can use this to scale our  $h_t(t)$  waveforms to get a frequency-domain gain. Note the similarity between (3.7) and (3.13). The implication is that the effective aperture as a function of frequency is  $|h_t(j\omega)|^2/f_g$ , which is a rather simple and pleasing result.

There is a drawback with this definition, in that it does not take into account dispersion, or time delay. If different frequencies have different time delays (as happens on more conventional antennas), the received pulse will not be clean. But the above definition of gain does not take this into account. Thus, using this definition of gain, two antennas with the same gain can have very different peak radiated E-fields.

#### 4. Reflector IRA

In Section 2 we described the impulsive portion of the radiation from a focused aperture antenna on boresight. Here, we extend that theory to find a more complete waveform of a reflector IRA on boresight. Papers relating to reflector IRAs appear in Section 3 of the Bibliography.

Consider what happens when a step voltage drives the IRA shown in Figure 4.1. There is a prepulse for a time  $2F/c$ , where  $F$  is the focal length of the reflector. This is due to the direct radiation of the currents on the feed arms. The shape of this prepulse is a step function, similar to the driving voltage. In Section 2 we saw that the impulsive portion of the radiated field is an approximate delta function, so let us consider a radiated waveform shown in Figure 4.2. The area of the impulse is known from Section 2. Furthermore, it is possible to calculate the direct radiation from a conical feed by using various stereographic projections. If the area under the prepulse is equal to the area under the impulse, then the tail portion of the waveform can be made small with proper tuning of the matching circuit. (Additional characterization of the postpulse (tail) is in [3: Giri and Baum, 1994 and 1997].)

We calculate now the magnitude of the prepulse. It is simplest to calculate this for the geometry of two circular cones, as shown in Figure 4.3. If one were interested in a feed consisting of flat plates (either facing or coplanar), then for high impedances (small  $\alpha$ ) the results for the circular cones describe the plate geometries of angular width  $4\alpha$  as well. For lower impedances, more exact expressions are available [3: Farr and Baum, 1992].

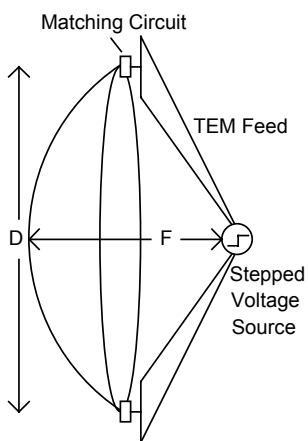


Figure 4.1 A reflector IRA.

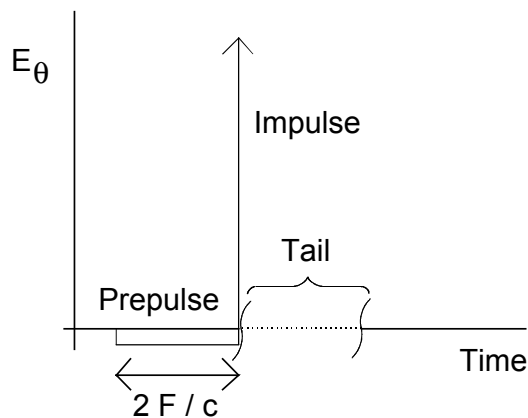


Figure 4.2. Approximate waveform of a Reflector IRA

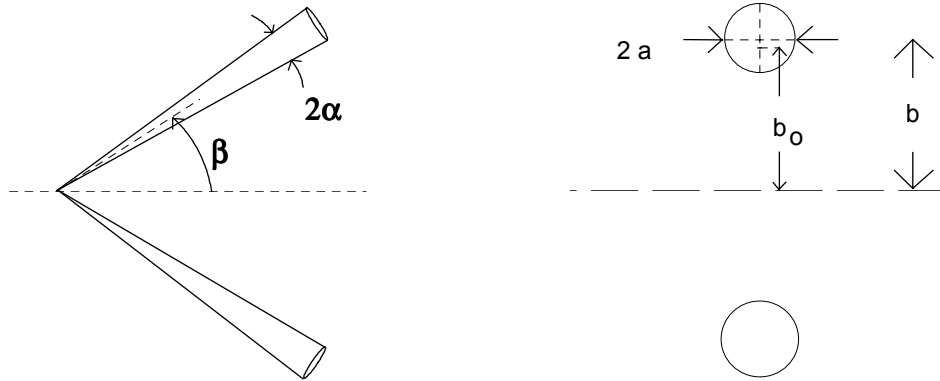


Figure 4.3. Circular cone feed of a reflector IRA (middle), and projection of the conical feed onto a plane (right).

It is now necessary to project the spherical geometry of the circular cones onto a planar surface. In order to do so, we invoke the usual stereographic projection. Thus, the polar coordinates in the projection plane are

$$x = 2F \cos(\phi) \tan(\theta/2) \quad , \quad y = 2F \sin(\phi) \tan(\theta/2) \quad (4.1)$$

The projection of the spherical cone generates a cylindrical structure whose cross-section is two circles with half height  $b$  and radius  $a$  such that

$$b = \frac{2F \sin(\beta)}{\cos(\alpha) + \cos(\beta)} \quad , \quad a = \frac{2F \sin(\alpha)}{\cos(\alpha) + \cos(\beta)} \quad (4.2)$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are as shown in Figure 4.4. It is simple to find the electric field at the center of the projected structure [3: Farr and Sower, 1995]. Thus, we find the backward radiated field (forward as far as our antenna is concerned) to be

$$E_{\theta} = -\frac{V}{r_o} \frac{\cos(\alpha) - \cos(\beta)}{\pi f_g \tanh(\pi f_g) \sin(\beta)} \quad (4.3)$$

This is just what we need for calculating the ratio of the prepulse area to the impulse area. The impulse area is found by integrating (3.10) with respect to time. The prepulse area is found by multiplying (4.3) by  $2F/c$ , the round trip transit time of the feed. The ratio of the prepulse area to the impulse area is found to be

$$\left| \frac{A_p}{A_i} \right| = \frac{4(F/D) [\cos(\alpha) - \cos(\beta)]}{\tanh(\pi f_g) \sin(\beta)} \quad (4.4)$$

If this ratio is approximately equal to unity, then the two areas are equal. For the types of parameters in which one is typically interested ( $F/D = 0.4$ ,  $Z_{feed} = 400 \Omega$ ), the areas are equal to

better than 1%. Thus, a reasonable expression for the on-boresight radiated field in response to a step-function excitation is

$$E(r, t) = \frac{V_o}{r} \frac{D}{4\pi c f_g} \left[ \frac{c}{2F} [-u(t) + u(t - 2F / c)] + \delta_a(t - 2F / c) \right] \quad (4.5)$$

With a time-varying source, with voltage  $V(t)$ , the expression is simply

$$E(r, t) = \frac{D}{4\pi r c f_g} \left[ \frac{c}{2F} [-V(t) + V(t - 2F / c)] + \frac{dV(t - 2F / c)}{dt} \right] \quad (4.6)$$

Of course, this expression makes use of a number of assumptions, including the use of an ideal matching circuit at the boundary between the feed and reflector. A second assumption is that the aperture blockage is small (valid for thin feed projections). Nevertheless, it is very helpful that such a simple result is available for such a complex structure.

Note that the impulsive portion of the above response was calculated with the assumption that the feed is long. This is an unnecessary constraint, as shown by [3: Farr and Baum, 1992]. It is shown there that a reflection off a paraboloidal reflector produces a flat phase front with the same aperture field distribution as an infinitely long cylindrical transmission line (TEM mode), and is exactly expressed by the usual stereographic transformation (with minus sign, reflector transformation).

Note also that the feed arms in a reflector IRA are normally terminated in the characteristic impedance of the feed arms, at a point near the reflector. This serves several purposes. First, it drains the high-voltage charge that accumulates on the feed arms. Second, it provides low-frequency electric and magnetic dipoles that are approximately balanced. This leads to a low-frequency pattern of  $1+\cos(\theta)$ , pointing in the correct (boresight) direction. Finally, because the feed is terminated to the reflector in the feed impedance, one can achieve a very good match to the input impedance. Thus, one can get a very flat TDR with this design.

Having described the response of a generic reflector IRA, we now consider a specific example, which was built by D. V. Giri [3: Giri *et al*, 1997]. A photograph of the system is shown in Figure 4.4. The system consists of a parabolic reflector illuminated by a pair of conical 400 ohm TEM feeds, which are electrically connected near the feed apex. Each of these twin 400 ohm feeds incorporate a very low inductance  $\sim 100$  pF series ceramic capacitors in each conductor, near the feed apex. The capacitors are then switched by a low inductance, high pressure ( $\sim 100$  atm), hydrogen gas spark gap. The resulting double exponential pulse has a 10-90% risetime of about 100 ps and an e-fold decay of about 20 ns. The system is capable of burst mode operation at up to 200 Hz.

Representative waveforms measured on and near boresight at a distance of 304m is shown in Figure 4.5, [3: Courtney et al, 1995] and other performance parameters are shown in Table 4.1.

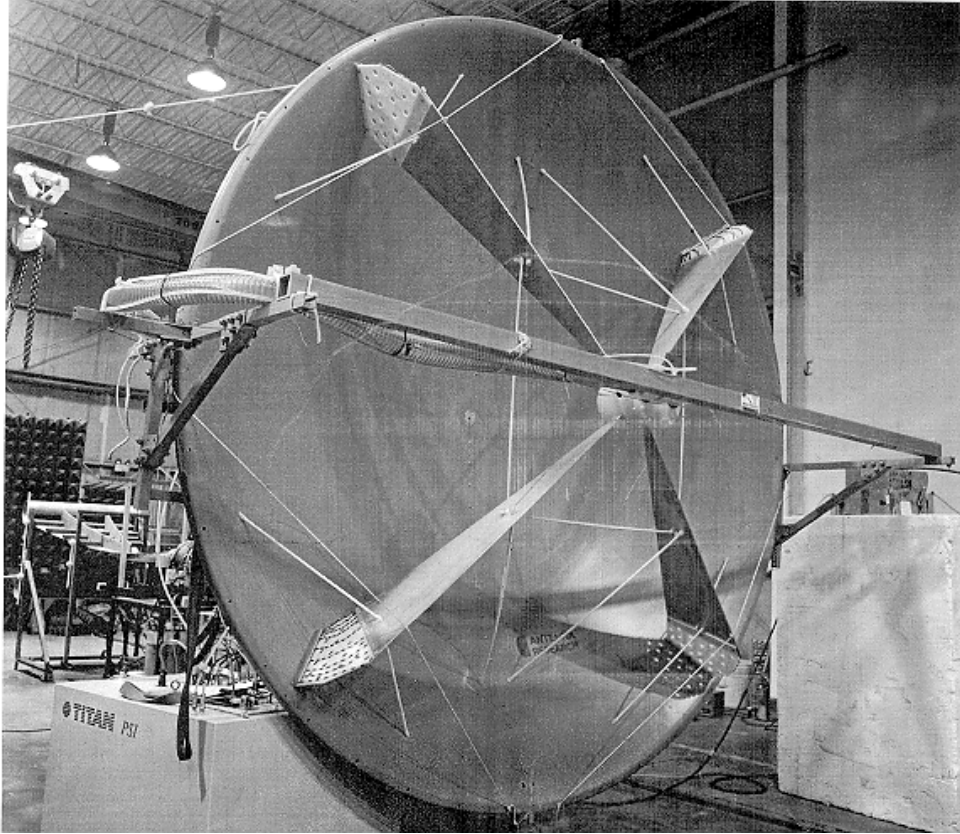


Figure 4.4. The 12-foot diameter reflector IRA built by D. V. Giri.

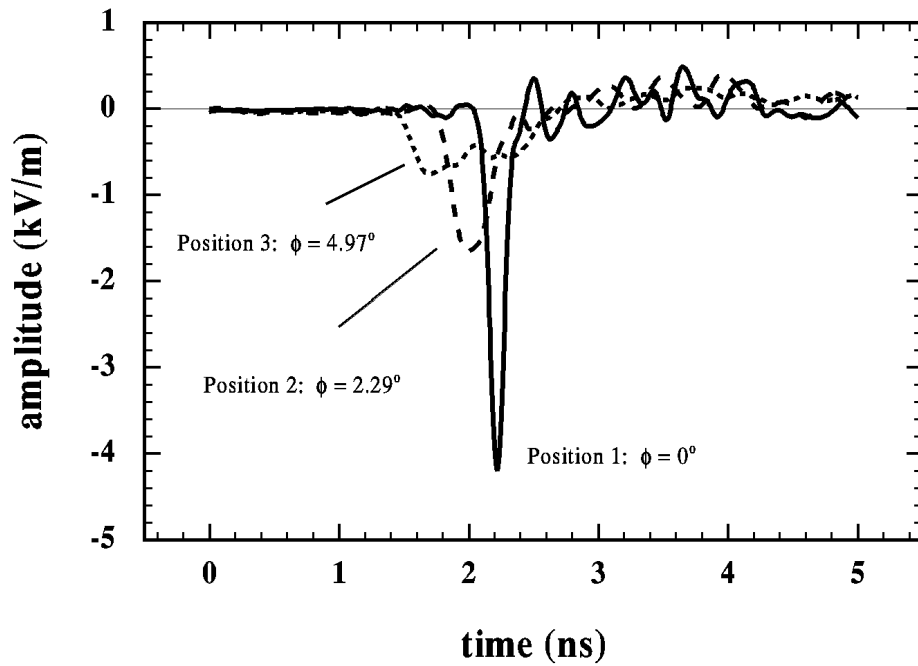


Figure 4.5 Measured temporal electric field at  $r = 305\text{m}$ , at angle of 0, 2.29, and 4.97 degrees off-boresight in the H-plane.

Table 4.1 Summary of the Reflector IRA Measurements

Physical Quantity	Numerical Value
Peak electric field on bore sight at r = 305 m	4.2 kV/m
Bore sight electric field (10-90%) risetime, r = 305 m	99 ps
Bore sight impulse duration (FWHM), r = 305 m	130 ps
Bore sight electric field spectrum, r = 305 m	< 12 dB variation over 50 MHz - 4 GHz
Main beam scan: FWHM $\theta$ - beam width FWHM $\phi$ - beam width	-1.77°, +1.45° -0.98°, +2.31°
Azimuthal, or H-plane pattern: FWHM $\phi$ - beam width -3 dB peak power beam width	3.18° 1.80°
Incident electric field at the center of the dish (10-90%) risetime	~ 34 kV/m 126 ps*
$V(\text{far}) = r E(\text{far})$	~ 1281 kV
*(instrumentation limited sensor ~ 100 ps, scope ~ 56 ps)	

The key Elements of the system include

- Impulse Radiating Antenna (IRA) of the type proposed by Baum
- An electromagnetic lens to ensure near ideal spherical TEM wavelaunch
- Use of plastics matched to the dielectric constant of the insulating oil
- A high pressure (~ 100 atm.), low inductance, rep-rate, H<sub>2</sub> as spark gap
- Ceramic capacitors incorporated into the TEM feed line profiles
- True differential charging and switchout of the capacitor/switch elements
- Long burst (> 500 pulses), 200 Hz rep-rate operation
- Computer based, fiber optic isolated control system

## 5. Lens IRA

A lens IRA is basically a TEM horn with a lens at the aperture to straighten out the spherical TEM wave on the conical transmission line into a plane wave at the end (aperture). Having said that, there are many details to consider. Figure 5.1 gives a general picture of this type of IRA. More concerning the lenses is given in Section 7. Section 4 of the bibliography (as well as selected papers in other sections) gives a more extensive discussion of this type of IRA.

TEM horns have a long history [5: Baum, 1967; 4: Shaubert, 1977; 4: Kanda, 1983] for various applications (EMP simulators, communications antennas, measurements). For IRA application, however, it is only in the limit of small divergence angle of the horn (or sufficiently long horn for given aperture dimensions and desired narrow radiated pulse width) that a TEM horn can be thought of as an IRA [4: Farr and Baum, 1992]. In general a lens is required to make the antenna fields into a plane wave at the aperture.

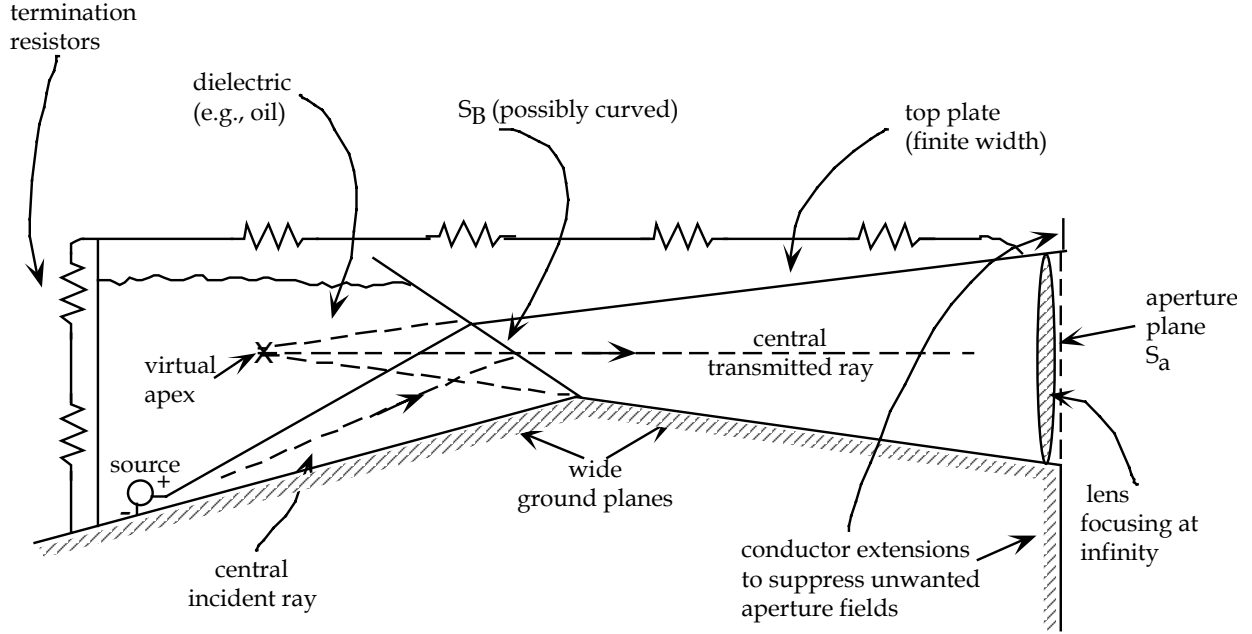


Fig. 5.1 Lens IRA for High-Power Application.

For small antennas, this type of antenna is a practical choice for an impulse radar [2: Farr and Frost, 1995]. It has been noted [2: Farr, 1995] that an optimum feed impedance for a lens IRA (differential) is around  $200 \Omega$ , similar to that for a reflector IRA (differential).

Part of a lens-IRA design concerns the termination of the conical transmission line in an optimal manner. As discussed in [4: Baum, 1995], a resistive termination near the aperture is not good because it makes the low-frequencies radiate preferentially in the backward direction (opposite to the early-time or high-frequency radiation). As indicated in fig. 5.1 [2: Baum, 1995a], this problem is overcome by routing the resistive termination around behind the horn, thereby reversing the low-frequency magnetic-dipole moment  $\vec{m}$ , which together with the corresponding electric-dipole moment  $\vec{p}$ , makes the low-frequency radiation in the  $\vec{p} \times \vec{m}$  direction be in the forward direction. Detailed calculations [2: Vogel, 1996 and 1997] show how to position the resistors and adjust the resistances so as to make

$$|\vec{p}| = \frac{|\vec{m}|}{c} \quad (5.1)$$

and make the backward low-frequency radiation have a null with a cardioid pattern [6, Baum, 1991].

Lens IRAs can be designed for differential or single-ended pulsers. For high-voltage applications, single-ended pulsers are more commonly available. In this case the TEM horn takes the form of a single conical plate with apex on a large ground plane, with pulser feeding



through the ground plane at the apex. As indicated in Fig. 5.1, as one goes from the aperture back toward the source, the fields can become so large that electrical breakdown is a significant problem. One can use a high-dielectric-strength gas (e.g., SF<sub>6</sub>), but as spacing becomes smaller even this dielectric strength can be exceeded. Then one might use transformer oil in the region nearest the source. This has a lower wave impedance due to its higher relative permittivity,  $\epsilon_r \simeq 2.25$ . One can partially compensate for this by bending the conical transmission line as it passes through the oil/gas interface sloped at the Brewster angle, giving no reflection of the important vertically polarized electric-field component (with reference to fig. 5.1). Furthermore, the characteristic impedances of the two conical transmission lines are more closely matched.

The oil/gas interface can be maintained by a plastic (e.g., polyethylene) with the same dielectric constant as the oil. Furthermore, as discussed in detail in [2: Baum, 1995a], this interface can be treated as a lens surface. In order to make the wave launched on the second horn (gas section) approximate a spherical wave (minimum dispersion) originate from the virtual apex, the interface can be appropriately curved to remove astigmatism. This required different curvatures in E and H planes. An interesting case has no curvature (flat) in the H plane giving a surface shaped approximately as a circular cylinder (axis in H plane). A prototype involving such considerations has been constructed [4: Wells et al, 1997].

At the aperture plane one can install a lens (approximate) to convert the spherical wave to a plane wave of the type discussed in [7: Baum, 1967]. While there are reflections at the two lens surfaces, the transmitted field is reduced by only a few percent for plastic/oil lenses of relative dielectric constant discussed previously. However, as the lens IRA becomes larger, the lens volume and associated mass and weight grow proportional to the cube of the linear dimensions for a given antenna shape.

## 6. Array IRA

An array IRA is basically a set of pulsed sources on a plane (or other shape if desired), triggered in such a way as to produce a plane wave on the antenna aperture. This is then a timed array (analogous to a phased array). One of the advantages of such an IRA is the possibility of electronic beam steering. For some applications the rapid-steering capability may be sufficiently important so as to offset the increased complexity. Another motivation for such an antenna concerns high-power application. As one increases the total voltage across the array the rise-time limitations of a single switch (such as for a reflector or lens IRA) become severe, leading to the desirability of replacing the single switch by an array (series/parallel) of switches operating at lower voltages. Of course, multiple switches bring with them the problem of switch jitter (which should be small compared to the switch rise time (e.g., 100 ps).

An interesting way to construct such an array is from a set of TEM horns (small conical transmission lines) connected together so that for wavelengths large compared to the individual elements, currents can flow from one element to the next [5: Baum, 1967]. As indicated in Fig. 6.1, this produces a large average electric field across the aperture giving an efficient radiator for such low frequencies [5: Baum, 1970]. Originally such arrays were designed for various types of

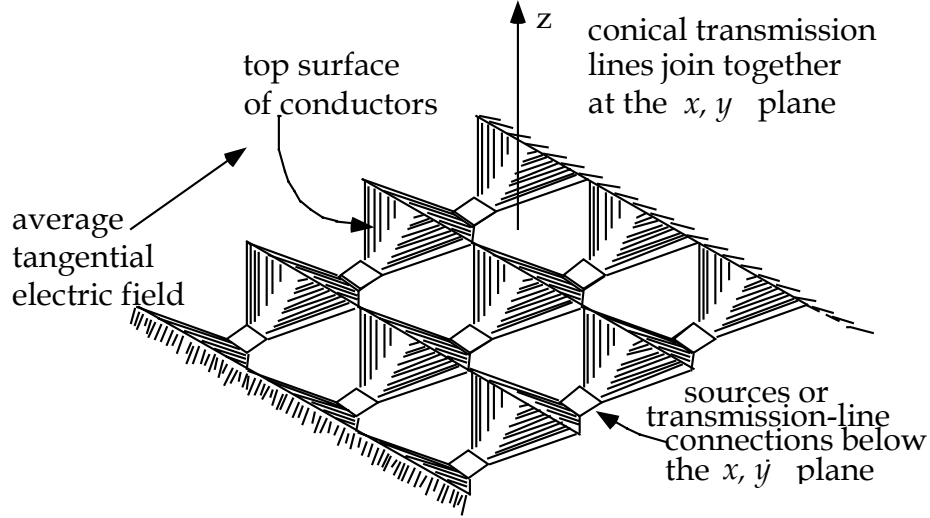


Fig. 6.1 Non-Planar Conical Transmission Lines.

EMP simulators [1: Baum, 1978, 1992]. More recently [1: Baum, 1997] attention has been given to arrays for radiating narrow high-amplitude transient pulses. (See Section 5 of the bibliography.)

Here  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  give the cross-section dimensions of an array unit cell. This ratio can be varied for impedance purposes. The length  $\ell$  of the conical transmission lines forming the unit cells can also be varied so as to optimize the high-frequency performance. For flat unit cells ( $\ell = 0$ ) the effective rise time  $t_1$  has  $ct_1 \simeq 1$  for  $w_1 \simeq w_2$ . For infinitely long launcher elements ( $\ell \rightarrow \infty$ ) one has  $ct_1 \simeq 0$  (perfect switch providing step-function pulse assumed) for broadside excitation (all switches closed simultaneously). This leads to the concept of a dispersion distance or time which gives the difference in arrival time of the field on each unit cell of the aperture plane as

$$d_e^{(1)} = ct_e^{(1)} = \left[ \ell^2 + \frac{w_1^2 + w_2^2}{4} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} - \ell \rightarrow \frac{w_1^2 + w_2^2}{8\ell} \quad (6.1)$$

as  $\frac{\left[ w_1^2 + w_2^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\ell} \rightarrow \infty$

There is also another dispersion associated with the transverse dimensions of the unit cell for the case that the beam angle  $\theta_1$  (measured away from array normal) varies away from zero. If  $w$  is the width of the unit cell in the direction of wave propagation across the array this space/time difference (dispersion) is

$$d_e^{(2)} = ct_e^{(2)} = w \sin(\theta_1) \quad (6.2)$$

If one wishes to scan the array over

$$0 \leq \theta_1 \leq \theta_1^{(\max)} \quad (6.3)$$

then this specifies

$$d_e^{(2,\max)} = w^{(\max)} \sin\left(\theta_1^{(\max)}\right) \quad (6.4)$$

where  $w$  can achieve a maximum value of

$$w^{(\max)} = \left[ w_1^2 + w_2^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (6.5)$$

for particular choices of the aximuthal scan angle  $\phi_1$ . There is not much point in making  $d_e^{(1)} \ll d_e^{(2)}$ . One may choose these two to be comparable for an appropriate design compromise.

With some choice of  $\theta_1^{(\max)}$  and some desired small dispersion, the array-element (unit-cell) dimensions are constrained. The length  $\ell$  is limited so that a ray path from each source is kept within the horn. The cross-section dimensions are limited by  $w^{(\max)}$ . For smaller dispersion or faster effective risetime one needs more array elements to fill a given array area. This represents a significant design tradeoff.

The design in fig. 6.1 is for a single polarization. Dual polarization can be achieved by the design in Fig. 6.2 with two TEM horns in each unit cell. Various other designs for single or dual polarization are also achievable based on regular parallelograms that divide up a plane (equilateral triangle, square, regular hexagon) [1: Baum, 1997; 5: Baum, 1970].

As with reflector and lens IRAs, an array IRA can also be designed to meet the balanced  $\vec{p} \times \vec{m}$  condition (e.g., (5.1)), so as to enhance the low-frequency radiation as a cardioid pattern peaked in the forward direction [5: Baum, 1993]. Figure 6.3 illustrates a technique in which a loop with terminating resistors *behind* the array is used to produce the requisite magnetic-dipole moment.

The array IRA is the most recently investigated type of IRA and the most complex type. Accordingly, it is the least well understood and research is continuing. Numerical computations [5: McGrath, 1996] have begun and show promise for a better future understanding and design of prototype arrays.

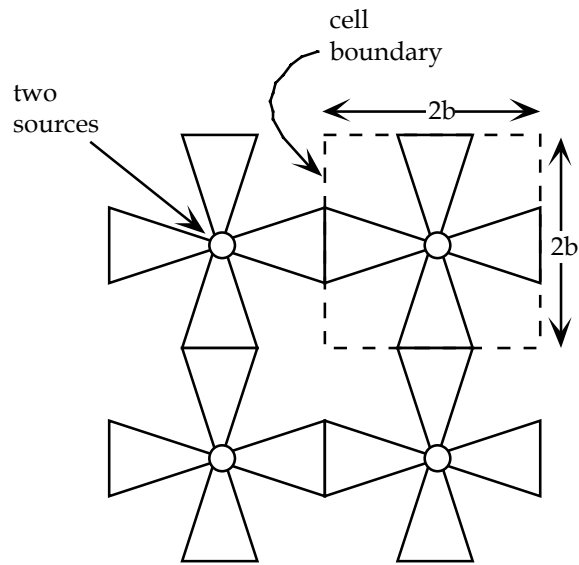


Fig. 6.2 Square Cell Geometry for Dual Polarization (Front View).

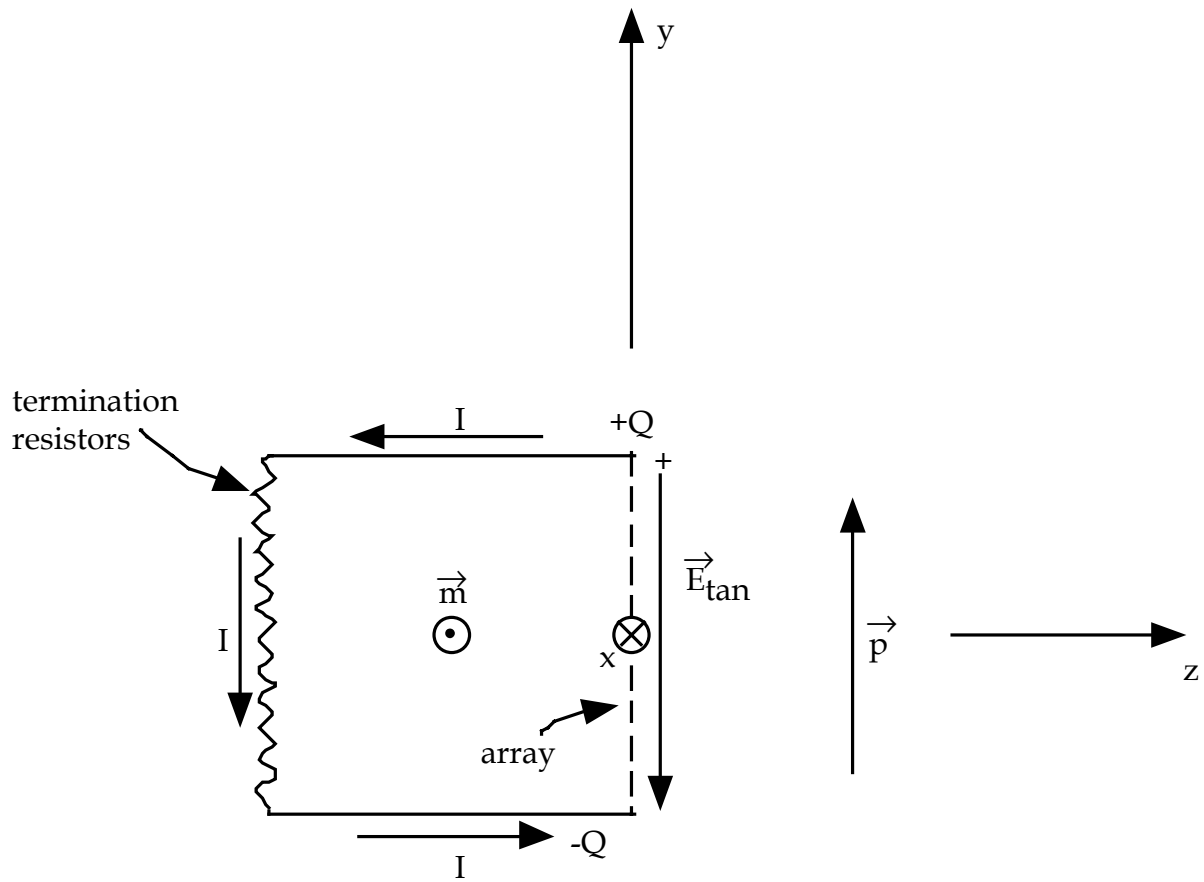


Fig. 6.3 Additions to Array for Balanced Low-Frequency Electric- and magnetic-Dipole Moments (Side View).

## 7. Transient Lenses

Lenses can be included as parts of various types of IRA systems. Besides straightening out the wave exiting a conical TEM waveguide (horn) as in a lens IRA (Section 5), lenses are used to redirect TEM waves (such as on coaxial waveguides) from one direction to another (bending lens) and/or between plane and spherical TEM waves. Note that the transient lenses used for this purpose are quite different, in general, from narrowband lenses (optical or microwave). In particular they need to have low dispersion for passing pulses with low distortion, and they often are constructed with transmission-line conductors passing through them and matching to TEM waveguides on both sides. In some cases the lenses and interface surfaces also need to withstand extremely high electric fields. These lenses come in two general kinds to which we can refer as approximate and exact.

### 7.1 Approximate lenses

These are often constructed with some uniform dielectric such as polyethylene or transformer oil. Transit times through the lens are preserved for the various ray paths between the appropriate planar and/or spherical surfaces on both sides of the lens. However, some reflections at the lens surfaces are accepted in the interest of simplicity. Essentially the differential impedances along a duct [8: Baum and Stone, 1991] are not constant. However, for not-too-large variations in the relative dielectric constant  $\epsilon_r$  (about 2.25 for polyethylene and transformer oil) the performance is acceptable in some applications.

Section 7 of the Bibliography lists the various papers on this subject. In particular the design in [7: Baum et al, 1993] has been successfully incorporated in the launch onto the conical transmission line in a large reflector IRA [3: Giri et al, 1997; 3: Giri and Baum, 1977]. Other designs are under study.

### 7.2 Exact lenses

Ideally, one would like to have the wave transitioned between TEM waveguides with *no* distortion. How to do this, and the extent to which this can be done is the synthesis problem for such lenses. This can be viewed in two ways as discussed in [8: Baum and Stone, 1991].

One fundamental approach involves a differential geometric scaling from some simpler problem (the formal problem) with a known TEM solution (say an inhomogeneous TEM plane wave) in some as yet unspecified  $u_1, u_2, u_3$  orthogonal curvilinear coordinate system (the formal system) initially regarded as Cartesian. Then regarding the  $u_n$  coordinates more generally one asks what coordinate systems give acceptable permeability  $\overleftrightarrow{\mu}(\vec{r})$  and permittivity  $\overleftrightarrow{\epsilon}(\vec{r})$  tensors to support the TEM wave (the real fields) in the now curved coordinates. In addition, this “lens region” generally needs to be matched to other regions with other TEM waves (planar/spherical) on appropriate boundary surfaces.

A second approach uses the duct concept mentioned previously. Transit times between appropriate surfaces are made the same for all rays. A duct surrounding each ray is also made to have the same impedance all along the ray (differential impedance matching). The first approach implies the conditions mentioned above, but the second approach has allowed some solutions with special kinds of anisotropic media involving metal sheets.

The earlier papers on this subject are summarized in [8: Baum and Stone, 1991]. Since then more progress has been made as indicated by the papers in Section 8 of the Bibliography. In particular in recent years research has concentrated on purely dielectric exact lenses. This is related to the difficulty of constructing magnetic materials with frequency independent (and lossless) permeability over frequency ranges of interest (say 10s of MHz to 10s of GHz, depending on specific application). Various dielectrics are dispersionless (for practical purposes and over not-too-large lengths) over such frequencies. Of particular note is the discovery of a class of solutions for a dielectric bending lens [8: Baum, 1996d]. This has the potential for being quite practical and early experiments are reported [8: Bigelow and Farr, 1998].

## **8. Some Related Matters**

Impulse-radiating antennas have been developed with practical applications in mind involving impulse-like fields in the far field. At the same time various investigators have been exploring special kinds of pulsed electromagnetic waves for special properties (narrow beams, near field conditions, etc.). A selected set of references has been included for the reader in Section 10 of the Bibliography. One of the limitations of some of these waves is their mathematical idealization involving the use of frequencies tending to infinity with significant amplitudes, a condition limited by real equipment. Nevertheless, these results can shed some insight into what is (or is not) achievable in a pulse-radiating antenna.

## **9. Concluding Remarks**

Recent years have shown much progress in the design of impulse-radiating antenna for various applications. There is ongoing research on multifunction IRAs [3: Farr et al, 1997] in which a single antenna handles multiple signals for communications, radar, and/or electronic warfare. This involves multiple frequencies, possibly broadband pulses, polarization diversity, transmit and receive. Furthermore, the beamwidth may be variable by defocusing the antenna by moving the feed point relative to the reflector, or by altering the reflector shape (in this case the antenna not being strictly an IRA). The array IRA also needs much more development for practical implementation.

Besides strictly antenna issues, there are pulse-power issues for high-power IRAs operating in pulse mode. Fast-rising high-voltage switching of pulses into the antenna can be of the order of  $6 \times 10^{15}$  V/s [2: Lehr et al, 1997]. To extend this performance one may investigate multichannel switching or multiple switches (which now required small switch jitter) as in an array (Section 6). In addition there are design problems in avoiding electrical breakdown on the antenna involving high-dielectric-strength materials. The exact lenses (Section 7.2) also need to be realized in a good approximation using graded dielectrics which can also withstand high fields.

There are also mechanical issues requiring attention. Particularly near the feed point (apex of the conical transmission line) the conical conductors and connections can be quite delicate considering their connection to large antenna structures which transmit large forces. These forces need to be relieved so as not to be transmitted to the apex. For some applications weight can be a problem and one needs to avoid massive dielectric lens-like structures in such cases.

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