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Design of Compact Dual-Polarized 1.2–10 GHz Eleven Feed for Decade Bandwidth Radio Telescopes

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Abstract—The Eleven antenna is a log-periodic folded-dipole-pair array with two unique radiation characteristics: a constant beamwidth and a fixed phase center location over a decade bandwidth. This paper presents a new compact design of a 1.2–10 GHz Eleven antenna, as a feed for reflector antennas by re-arranging the geometry of the outermost elements of the antenna. Due to the compact size, it is possible to put the whole feed system inside a compact cryostat and cool it down to cryogenic temperatures, in order to reduce the system noise temperature in radio telescope applications. The new compact Eleven feed has only a 40% volume of the original standard Eleven feed with a very similar performance. This reduces the capacity requirement for the cryogenic cooling system significantly and therefore the power consumption for future radio telescopes, such as the square kilometer array (SKA). The concept behind this compact design is analyzed in the paper. Simulations and measurements presented here have verified the design.

Index Terms—Compact antenna, Eleven antenna, log-periodic array, low noise temperature, ultra-wideband antenna.

I. INTRODUCTION

Radio telescopes with large decade-bandwidth have many advantages. They provide super-sensitivity which makes extremely low temperatures in the universe measurable [1]. Their simultaneous multi-channel observations in frequency domain offer possibilities to observe large number of spectral lines, and therefore increase both the speed and accuracy of the observation (for example in the geodetic Very Long Base Interferometry experiments) [2]. Ultra wide bandwidth allows pulse observation in time domain, which is critical in applications such as the observation of different forms of solar activity [3]. Many proposals for future radio telescopes require such wideband systems, for example, 1.2–10 GHz mid-frequency dish array of the SKA (Square Kilometer Array) [4] and 2–13 GHz reflectors for VLBI2010 (Very Long Baseline Interferometry 2010) [2].

There are several reflector feed technologies for decade-bandwidth radio telescopes under development, such as the Eleven feed, the quadridge horn [5], the improved quadridge-ridged flared horn [6], the sinuous feed [7] and the quasi self-complementary antenna [8]. The main drawback of the quadridge horn as a feed for reflectors is that its beamwidth and phase center location vary with frequency, which leads to a low aperture efficiency; see the comparison of the radiation performance between the Eleven feed and the quadridge horn in [9]. The improved quadridge-ridged flared horn has much more constant beamwidth compared to the original quadridge horn but the phase center varies with frequency. Both the sinuous feed and the quasi self-complementary antenna are non-planer wideband log-periodic dual polarization antennas. The polarization angle of the two antennas varies with frequency and no hardware has yet been realized above 4 GHz.

The Eleven feed is a decade-bandwidth log-periodic dual-dipole array antenna. It has two unique radiation characteristics: a constant beamwidth and a fixed phase center location over a decade bandwidth. In addition, it has a reflection coefficient below $-10$ dB over nearly a decade bandwidth, low cross polarization level, and a simple geometry with a low profile. Therefore, the Eleven antenna is a very promising candidate for decade-bandwidth reflector feed in future radio telescopes, demonstrated in [10] and [13].

Radio telescope applications require extremely low system noise temperatures, such as the goal of below 35 K in the mid-frequency band (1–10 GHz) SKA project. For a frequency range of a few GHz, a feed system consisting of corrugated feed horn, combined with cryogenically cooled LNAs, usually has noise temperature in the order of 20K over an octave bandwidth. It is therefore critical to integrate and cryogenically cool LNAs and feeds in both VLBI2010 and mid-frequency SKA systems, to be competitive with the corrugated feed horns. In addition, the feed and its cryogenic chamber (cryostat) should be sufficiently compact in order to fit in the focal area of the reflector, with minimum blockage of the reflector aperture. Consequently, size and cryogenic cooling concerns (such as out-gassing, heat conduction and thermally-induced mechanical stress) play important roles in the design of decade-bandwidth feeds for VLBI2010 and SKA radio telescopes.

In addition to applications in radio telescopes, the Eleven antenna can be used in other areas, for example, in satellite communication systems as terminals with mono-pulse tracking functions [14], as an ultra-wideband MIMO antenna for MIMO systems [15], [16], and as a digital television antenna [17]. The Eleven antenna can also be combined with a centrally located high frequency horn to make a dual band feed for monitoring antennas in satellite communication systems [18].

The purpose of this work is to design a compact 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed for the SKA project, which should fit into the same...
cryostat for the 2–13 GHz Eleven feed for VLBI2010 [13], instead of using a nearly double-sized cryostat due to the frequency band. With the compact feed, the energy consumption for cryogenic cooling of thousands of feeds in the SKA can be reduced significantly. Therefore, this work is important to fulfill the very strict requirements for minimizing the power consumption in the SKA [19].

The compact design is obtained by folding down the outermost three non-radiating elements in the antenna. In Section II, we describe the theory on compacting a general log-periodic array. Two alternative compact designs for the 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed are discussed in Section III. Optimization procedure used in the design is described in Section V. Then, the measured and simulated results are presented to verify the compact design in Section VI.

II. THEORY ON COMPACTING LOG-PERIODIC ARRAY

In general, in order to make a log-periodic array (LPA) antenna function properly over a certain operating frequency band, the LPA should be constructed in such a way that there always exist three regions (transmission-line, active and stop) over the operating frequency band. The definitions of the three regions can be found in [1] and we describe them in a stricter way for the sake of analysis here. It is also assumed in this work that the excitation (feeding) port is at the input port of the smallest radiating element in the LPA, as shown in Fig. 1, which is also the case for the most LPAs in practice.

1) The Transmission-Line-State Region: The transmission-line-state region (referred to as the transmission-line region in the paper) in a LPA at a frequency $f$ is the region where the elements do not radiate. This is because the size of the elements is much smaller than the wavelength at $f$, and therefore they function as a transmission line. Shown in Fig. 1, the elements from 1 to L are in the transmission-line region.

2) The Active-Radiating-State Region: The active-radiating-state region (active region) in a LPA at a frequency $f$ is the region where the elements radiate. Shown in Fig. 1, the elements from $L+1$ to $M$ radiate.

3) The Stop-State Region: The stop-state region (stop region) in a LPA at a frequency $f$ is the region after the active region, where the elements do not radiate, even though the size of the elements is comparable to the wavelength at the frequency $f$. Non-radiation in the stop region is due to that the current on these elements vanishes. This current vanishing is the result of the following fact: the current passed through the previous element and the current induced by mutual couplings from the active radiation elements via free space (Fig. 2) are of the same amplitude and $180^\circ$ out of phase [20], [21].

The purpose of having a stop region in a LPA is twofold: keep the log-periodic geometry of the array for the operating frequency band, in order to have constant radiation performance for the band [21], and properly terminate the LPA. Since there are no currents on the elements in the stop region, the termination of the last element can be either shorted, open or by other ways. For example, the last dipole of the Eleven feed is shorted to the ground plane in order to have a good thermal conductivity in this work.

Having a stop region however makes the size of the whole LPA antenna large, because the elements in the stop region are large due to the periodicity. In this work, for example, we need three elements in the stop region for the frequency of 1.2 GHz, and the volume of the antenna including these three elements is therefore almost 7 times of the volume of the feed without the three elements. Thus, re-arrangement of the elements in the stop region may lead to a compact solution to a LPA antenna.

Based on the above analysis, the re-arrangement of the elements in the stop region should be carried out under the following constraints: these elements should not radiate (kept as non-radiating elements), and the effect on the radiating elements on both radiation performance and reflection coefficient should be minimum. This implies that the mutual couplings and the current transmissions among these elements should be kept as close to the original one as possible, see Fig. 2. Obviously it is too complicated to find a geometry fulfilling the constraints by an analytical method. Therefore, numerical optimization is applied to this task.

III. TWO ALTERNATIVE COMPACT DESIGNS

In principle, there could be many possible alternatives of compact geometries which satisfy the requirement discussed above. Two of them have been investigated: the curve bend and the $90^\circ$ bend. The reason that the two alternatives are presented in the paper is that though the $90^\circ$ bend is chosen for the
result of the simulated reflection coefficient of this type, where the input port is at the port of the first dipole, with a reference impedance of 200 Ohms as shown by the red arrow in Fig. 3.

The volume reduction by the curved-bent solution is quite significant. Compared to the standard unfolded 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed, shown in Fig. 8, this compact feed has a volume of only 32% of that of the standard one. However, the manufacture cost, specially for one prototype, is quite high, due to the complexity of this geometrical re-arrangement (a mold is needed for pressing the elements into a specific curve). Therefore, this alternative of compact geometry has not been manufactured for verification and further investigation in this work, but is left open to compact solution for future mass production.

**B. 90° Bend**

Fig. 3 (down) shows the CST modeling of the 90°-bent solution: the elements are bent to the horizontal and then to the vertical. The main advantages of this structure are the much lower manufacture cost compared to the curve bend and the better mechanical stability. Thus, this alternative is chosen to go through the whole optimization procedure and one prototype has been manufactured in the work, which is referred to as the folded compact Eleven feed below. It is also obvious that the geometrical change of this solution is quite dramatic, and the performance of this alternative may therefore have some dramatic change at the low end of the band. Consequently, a heavy optimization is required.

**IV. CHARACTERIZATIONS OF THE ELEVEN FEED FOR OPTIMIZATION**

The optimization procedure is based on the following characterizations of the Eleven feed.

**A. Reflection Coefficient**

The center puck circuit board for the 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed used in this work is the same one for 2–13 Eleven feed in [13], which is a 8-port circuit shown in Fig. 10. With the reference to Figs. 5 and 10, the reflection coefficient $\Gamma$ is defined as

$$\Gamma = S_{11} - S_{12} + S_{13} - S_{14},$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

while ports 5, 6, 7 and 8 for the other polarization are terminated by loads. The formula in (1) corresponds to the reflection coefficient at port $P_{IN}$, using an ideal feeding network consisting of
two ideal 180° hybrids (baluns) and one ideal 3-dB power combiner, as shown in Fig. 5, to combine the signals received by the antenna petals.

B. Aperture Efficiency

The aperture efficiency of the Eleven feed can be calculated by several sub-efficiencies [23] as

\[ \epsilon_{ap} = \epsilon_{sp} \epsilon_{BO} \epsilon_{φ} \epsilon_{θ} \]

where \( \epsilon_{sp} \) is the spillover efficiency with the subtended angle \( θ_0 \); \( \epsilon_{BO} \) is the BOR1 (body of revolution) efficiency within \( θ_0 \); \( \epsilon_{φ} \) and \( \epsilon_{θ} \) are the polarization efficiency, the illumination efficiency and the phase efficiency, all of the BOR3 component and within \( θ_0 \), respectively. Note that \( \epsilon_{sp} \) is evaluated on the total radiation function, not only on its BOR1 component.

C. Co- and Cross-Polar Radiation Pattern

Although the Eleven antenna is not a BOR (body of revolution) structure antenna, it has a high BOR1 efficiency. Therefore, the co- and cross-polar radiation functions of the BOR1 component are mainly concerned, which can be written as [23]

\[ G_{co}(θ, φ) = G_{PB45}(θ) - G_{RP45}(θ) \cos(2φ) \]
\[ G_{rp}(θ, φ) = G_{RP45}(θ) \sin(2φ) \]

Thus, the radiation characterization of the BOR1 component of the Eleven feed is defined by the co- and cross-polar radiation functions in 45° plane: \( G_{PB45}(θ) \) and \( G_{RP45}(θ) \).

V. OPTIMIZATION SCHEME—GENETIC ALGORITHM

A global optimization scheme—the Genetic Algorithm (GA) has been applied to optimize the configuration of the 90° bent folding structure, together with using CST MS [22] as the electromagnetic solver. The GA scheme used here is similar to that in [24].

The 1.2–10 GHz Eleven antenna is designed with four petals for dual polarizations; on each of them the log-periodic array consists of 17 cascaded folded dipoles. The innermost 14 folded dipoles on each petal have the same geometry on Rogers TMM3 substrate as those used in the 2–13 GHz Eleven feed presented in [13] and [25]. The reason for this is that we want to use the same center puck, feeding network and ports for both the 1.2–10 GHz and 2–13 GHz Eleven feeds. The operating frequency for the 14th element is 1 GHz. The rest outermost 3 elements are in the stop region for the frequency band of 1.2–10 GHz.

The optimization is carried out on dimensions of the outermost three dipoles with a metal plate connected to the ground plane, see Fig. 6. Since the outermost three dipoles affect the performance of the Eleven feed mainly at low frequencies, the optimization is performed for the frequency range of 1–3 GHz, which makes the whole feed (including the cryostat) not very large in terms of wavelength (1.4 million meshcells with 20 lines per wavelength at 3 GHz modeled in CST MWS).

The goal of the optimization is to minimize the reflection coefficient and keep a good radiation performance. The genes in this GA optimization can be expressed as

\[ gene = \{ k_{15}, k_{16}, k_{17}, L_{15}, L_{16}, L_{17}, L, D, H_1, H_2 \} \]

where \( k_{15}, k_{16}, \) and \( k_{17} \) are the scaling factors for dipoles 15, 16, and 17, respectively, and other dimensions are defined in Fig. 6. Floating-point data are used to express the chromosome.

The first generation is created randomly with a population of 50 individuals. Then, an elite group of 10 individuals with the best genes is selected and two-point crossover is applied among the elite individuals in the group to create genes for the next generation. A roulette-wheel selection is used to choose the genes from the remaining non-elite population, and the selected genes are over-crossed to create the genes for the rest of the population in the next generation. If the population of the next generation is fewer than 50 due to the mechanical constraints, mutation and random creation are used to create more genes. In this work, after 5 generations, the best genes become convergence.

Fig. 7 shows a mechanical drawing of the final optimized geometry of the antenna. It can be seen that the outermost three dipoles are not periodically scaled any more. It is also noticed that though dipole 16 is shorter than it was before the rearrangement, it is non-radiating element in the stop region. As it is explained in Section III-B, the 90° bend compact design makes the geometry change dramatically, and consequently leads to a dramatic change of the size and location of the dipoles, in order to fulfill the condition for the stop region—the current vanishes.

A comparison between the folded compact Eleven feed and the standard unfolded one has been carried out in simulation. The geometry of these two feeds is shown in Fig. 8. It can be seen that the compact design has only 40% volume of the standard one. Therefore, the same compact cryostat for 2–13 GHz Eleven feed can be used for the 1.2–10 GHz feed. Fig. 9 shows the comparison of the simulated performance (with a 0.1 GHz frequency interval) between the two feeds, where the aperture efficiency is calculated for a reflector with a subtended angle of 2 × 60° and without the blockage efficiency included. It can be
Fig. 8. Compact 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed has only 40% volume of the standard one. (a) Standard unfolded; (b) folded compact.

Concluded that the compact Eleven feed has a very similar performance to that of the standard one over 1.2–10 GHz, though the standard one has better performance at 1.2 GHz. It is also noticed that the reflection coefficient of the compact antenna changes rapidly around 1.2 GHz.

VI. SIMULATED AND MEASURED RESULTS

The modeling and the manufactured hardware of the compact 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed with a cylinder emulating the cryostat are shown in Fig. 10.

All simulated results presented here are obtained by using CST MWS [22], which includes the center puck circuit board, as shown in Fig. 10(a). The simulated reflection coefficient is at the input port (port 1) with a port impedance (reference impedance) of 50 Ohms. Note that we have used two symmetry planes in the simulation: the PEC (perfect electric conductor) plane and the PMC (perfect magnetic conductor) plane. By doing so, the size of the problem is reduced to the quarter of the original one, and the reflection coefficient at port 1 is equivalent to that determined by (1) when the whole geometry is included in simulation.

The reflection coefficient is measured at ports 1–4 with 50 Ohm SMA connectors, shown in Fig. 10(b). A feeding network, including two 180° hybrids and one 3-dB power divider, is used in the measurement. The calibration is done at the output ports of the feeding network (these output ports will be connected to ports 1–4 of the antenna) so the effect (ohmic loss, etc.) of the feeding network has been calibrated out.

The complex far-field functions are measured in the anechoic chamber at the Antenna Group at Chalmers University of Technology, in terms of co- and cross-polar components in Ludwig’s third definition, with 2 degree interval for both θ and ϕ and 0.1 GHz frequency interval.

The measured and simulated reflection coefficients of the Eleven feed are shown in Fig. 11. It can be observed that the measured reflection coefficient is below −10 dB over the most part of the 1.2–10 GHz band, and there are only a few peaks above the −10 dB level, and all of them are below −8 dB.

Fig. 12 shows the measured co- and cross-polar radiation patterns and the BOR3 components in 45° plane. It can be seen that the beamwidth of the pattern is nearly constant over the frequency band, and the cross-polarization level is below about −15 dB.

Fig. 13 presents the calculated sub-efficiencies for the 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed when it illuminates a parabolic reflector with a subtended angle of 2 × 60°, both based on the simulated and measured complex far-field functions. The reason that we choose this subtended angle is that this value
Fig. 10. Model in CST MWS and Photo of the manufactured 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed (left), and the 8-port center puck circuit board at the rear side of the ground plane (right) (amplified, not in scale). (a) CST model; (b) prototype.

Fig. 11. Simulated and measured reflection coefficients of the compact 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed at the ports of the center puck circuit board with a 50-Ohm reference port impedance.

From the figure, it can be seen that the simulated and measured results agree with each other quite well. The aperture efficiency \( e_{ap} \) is better than \(-3\) dB over 1.2–10 GHz. The spillover efficiency \( e_{sp} \) is better than \(-0.4\) dB over the most part of the frequency band but degraded to about \(-0.7\) dB at both the low and high frequency ends. The reason for the \( e_{sp} \) degradation at the low frequency end is probably the effect of the re-arrangement of the last three dipoles, as shown in Fig. 9. The degradation of \( e_{sp} \) at high frequencies is due to the increase of the higher modes of \( \varphi \) variation. The \( BOR_1 \) efficiency \( e_{BOR_1} \) is almost higher than \(-0.5\) dB over the whole band. The polarization efficiency \( e_{pol} \) and the phase efficiency \( e_\phi \) are very high (better than \(-0.1\) dB), except for the low frequency end, again due to the re-arrangement of the dipoles. The illumination efficiency \( e_{ill} \) is almost constant due to the constant beamwidth.

Fig. 12. Measured co(solid)- and cross(dashed)-polar radiation patterns at 15 frequencies in \( \varphi = 45^\circ \) plane of the 1.2–10 GHz Eleven antenna. The upper graph shows the patterns of the total radiation field, and the lower graph of the \( BOR_1 \) components of the field.
Fig. 13. Calculated aperture efficiency and its sub-efficiencies of the 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed for a reflector with subtended angle of \(2 \times 60^\circ\). Results are based on (a) simulated and (b) measured complex far-field functions. Center blockage is neglected.

Fig. 14. Simulated and measured directivity of the 1.2–10 GHz Eleven antenna. Fig. 14 shows the simulated and measured directivity of the Eleven feed with good agreement. It is observed that both the directivity and the aperture efficiency have a certain fluctuation over the frequency band, which is a characteristic of log-periodic array antennas. The directivity of the whole reflector antenna will also have a less-than-1 dB fluctuation due to the fluctuation of the aperture efficiency. This fluctuation can be calibrated out by proper calibration procedures [26].

Fig. 15 shows the simulated and measured radiation efficiency of the Eleven feed. Radiation efficiency \(e_{rad}\) measures the ohmic losses of an antenna, which is a critical characteristic for feeds used in radio telescopes. The measurement was carried out over 1.2–8.5 GHz, by using the Bluetooth reverberation chamber [27], [28], including the hybrids and combiners. But the results shown in Fig. 15 are only for the Eleven feed with the center puck circuit board, where the measured data are obtained by removing the ohmic loss in the feeding network (the hybrids and combiner), using a rigorous calibration method presented in [29]. The reason for the measured frequency range of only 1.2–8.5 GHz is the present limitations of the chamber above 8.5 GHz. From both the simulated and measured data, it is seen that the radiation efficiency (ohmic loss) of the Eleven feed is between \(-0.1\) dB and \(-0.4\) dB over 1.2–8.5 GHz. The fluctuation of the measured curve, particularly at both the low frequency end and above 3.5 GHz, is due to the measurement error in the reverberation chamber [27].
VII. CONCLUSION

By re-arranging the outermost three folded dipoles, a compact 1.2–10 GHz Eleven feed has been developed. The volume of the new design has only 40% of the original, with a very similar performance. Thus, the same compact cryostat for 2–13 GHz Eleven feed can be used for the 1.2–10 GHz feed system. By doing so, the blockage due to the feed system is minimized, and the capacity requirement for cryogenic cooling system (therefore the power consumption) is reduced significantly.

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