

## LECTURE 18: PLANAR ARRAYS, CIRCULAR ARRAYS

### 1. Planar arrays

Planar arrays are more versatile; they provide more symmetrical patterns with lower side lobes, much higher directivity (narrow main beam). They can be used to scan the main beam toward any point in space.

Applications – tracking radars, remote sensing, communications, etc.

#### 1.1 The array factor of a rectangular planar array

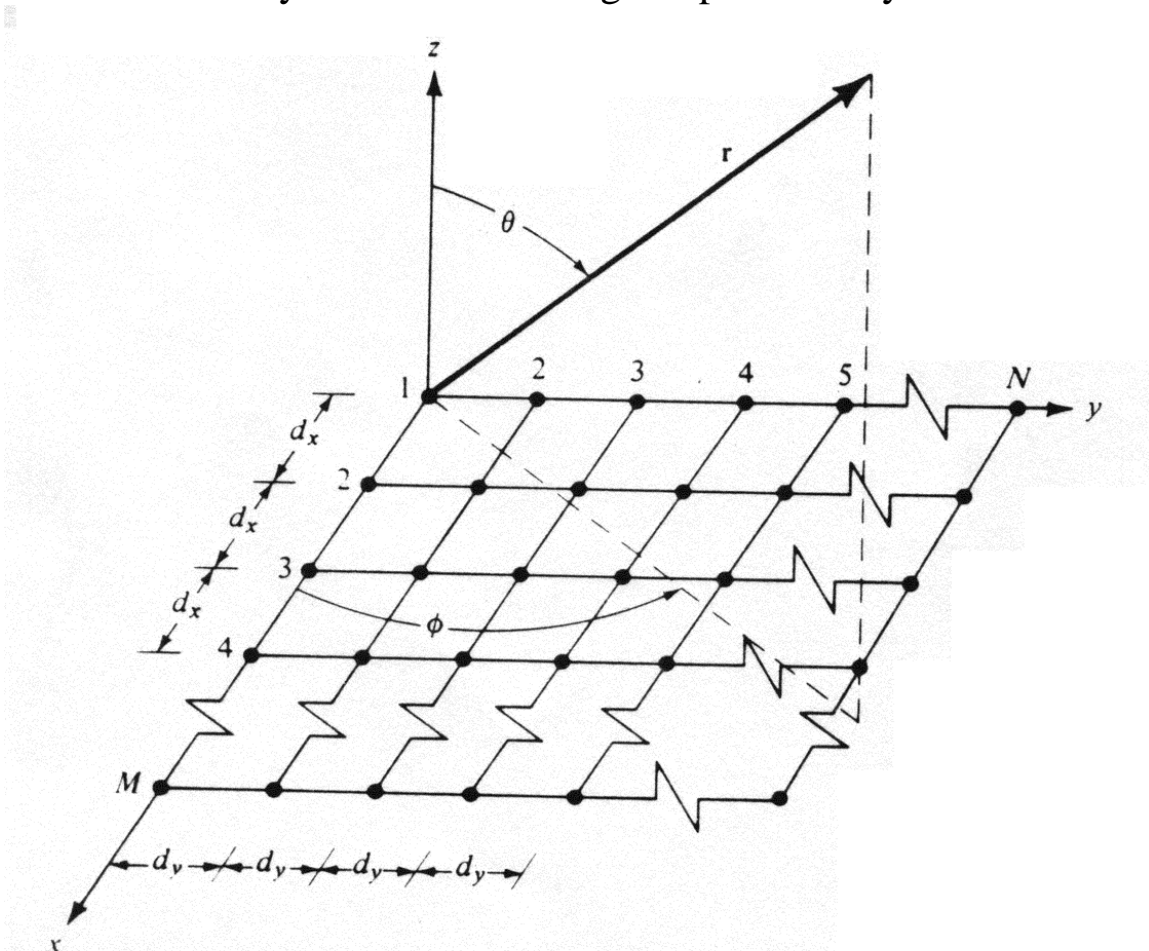


Fig. 6.23(b), pp.310, Balanis

The AF of a linear array of  $M$  elements along the  $x$ -axis is:

$$AF_{x1} = \sum_{m=1}^M I_{m1} e^{j(m-1)(kd \sin \theta \cos \phi + \beta_x)} \quad (18.1)$$

where  $\sin \theta \cos \phi = \cos \gamma_x$  is the directional cosine with respect to the  $x$ -axis. It is assumed that all elements are equispaced with an interval of  $d_x$  and a progressive shift  $\beta_x$ .  $I_{m1}$  denotes the excitation amplitude of the element at the point with coordinates:  $x = (m-1)d_x$ ,  $y = 0$ . In the figure above, this is the element of the  $m$ -th row and the 1<sup>st</sup> column of the array matrix.

If  $N$  such arrays are placed next to each other in the  $y$  direction, a rectangular array will be formed. We shall assume again that they are equispaced at a distance of  $d_y$  and there is a progressive phase shift along each row of  $\beta_y$ . It will be also assumed that the normalized current distribution along each of the  $x$ -directed array is the same but the absolute values correspond to a factor of  $I_{1n}$  ( $n = 1, \dots, N$ ). Then, the AF of the entire array will be:

$$AF = \sum_{n=1}^N I_{1n} \left[ \sum_{m=1}^M I_{m1} e^{j(m-1)(kd_x \sin \theta \cos \phi + \beta_x)} \right] e^{j(n-1)(kd_y \sin \theta \sin \phi + \beta_y)} \quad (18.2)$$

or

$$AF = S_{x_M} \cdot S_{y_N}, \quad (18.3)$$

where:

$$S_{x_M} = AF_{x1} = \sum_{m=1}^M I_{m1} e^{j(m-1)(kd \sin \theta \cos \phi + \beta_x)}, \text{ and}$$

$$S_{y_N} = AF_{1y} = \sum_{n=1}^N I_{1n} e^{j(n-1)(kd_y \sin \theta \sin \phi + \beta_y)}$$

In the array factors above:

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \theta \cos \phi &= \hat{x} \cdot \hat{r} = \cos \gamma_x \\ \sin \theta \sin \phi &= \hat{y} \cdot \hat{r} = \cos \gamma_y \end{aligned} \quad (18.4)$$

The pattern of a rectangular array is the product of the array factors of the linear arrays in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions.

For a uniform planar (rectangular) array  $I_{m1} = I_{1n} = I_0$ , for all  $m$  and  $n$ , i.e., all elements have the same excitation amplitudes.

$$AF = I_0 \sum_{n=1}^N e^{j(m-1)(kd_x \sin \theta \cos \phi + \beta_x)} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{j(n-1)(kd_y \sin \theta \sin \phi + \beta_y)} \quad (18.5)$$

The normalized array factor can be obtained as:

$$AF_n(\theta, \phi) = \left\{ \frac{1}{M} \frac{\sin\left(M \frac{\psi_x}{2}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\psi_x}{2}\right)} \right\} \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \frac{\sin\left(N \frac{\psi_y}{2}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\psi_y}{2}\right)} \right\}, \quad (18.6)$$

where:

$$\psi_x = kd_x \sin \theta \cos \phi + \beta_x$$

$$\psi_y = kd_y \sin \theta \sin \phi + \beta_y$$

The major lobe (principal maximum) and grating lobes of the terms:

$$S_{x_M} = \frac{1}{M} \frac{\sin\left(M \frac{\psi_x}{2}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\psi_x}{2}\right)} \quad (18.7)$$

$$S_{y_N} = \frac{1}{N} \frac{\sin\left(N \frac{\psi_y}{2}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\psi_y}{2}\right)} \quad (18.8)$$

are located at angles such that:

$$kd_x \sin \theta_m \cos \phi_m + \beta_x = \pm 2m\pi, \quad m = 0, 1, \dots \quad (18.9)$$

$$kd_y \sin \theta_n \sin \phi_n + \beta_y = \pm 2n\pi, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots \quad (18.10)$$

The principal maxima correspond to  $m = 0, n = 0$ .

In general,  $\beta_x$  and  $\beta_y$  are independent from each other. But, if it is required that the main beams of  $S_{x_M}$  and  $S_{y_N}$  intersect (which is usually the case), then the common main beam is in the direction:

$$\theta = \theta_0 \text{ and } \phi = \phi_0, m = n = 0 \quad (18.11)$$

If the principal maximum is specified by  $(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ , then the progressive phases  $\beta_x$  and  $\beta_y$  must satisfy:

$$\beta_x = -kd_x \sin \theta_0 \cos \phi_0 \quad (18.12)$$

$$\beta_y = -kd_y \sin \theta_0 \sin \phi_0 \quad (18.13)$$

When  $\beta_x$  and  $\beta_y$  are specified, the direction of the main beam can be found by simultaneously solving (18.12) and (18.13):

$$\tan \phi_0 = \frac{\beta_y d_x}{\beta_x d_y} \quad (18.14)$$

$$\sin \theta_0 = \pm \sqrt{\left( \frac{\beta_x}{kd_x} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\beta_y}{kd_y} \right)^2} \quad (18.15)$$

The grating lobes can be located by substituting (18.12) and (18.13) in (18.9) and (18.10):

$$\tan \phi_{mn} = \frac{\sin \theta_0 \sin \phi_0 \pm n\lambda/d_y}{\sin \theta_0 \cos \phi_0 \pm m\lambda/d_x} \quad (18.16)$$

$$\sin \theta_{mn} = \frac{\sin \theta_0 \cos \phi_0 \pm m\lambda/d_x}{\cos \phi_{mn}} = \frac{\sin \theta_0 \sin \phi_0 \pm n\lambda/d_y}{\sin \phi_{mn}} \quad (18.17)$$

To avoid grating lobes, the spacing between the elements must be less than  $\lambda$  ( $d_x < \lambda$  and  $d_y < \lambda$ ). In order a true grating lobe to occur, both equations (18.16) and (18.17) must have a real solution  $(\theta_{mn}, \phi_{mn})$ .

3-D pattern of a 5-element square planar uniform array without grating lobes ( $d = \lambda/4$ ,  $\beta_x = \beta_y = 0$ ):

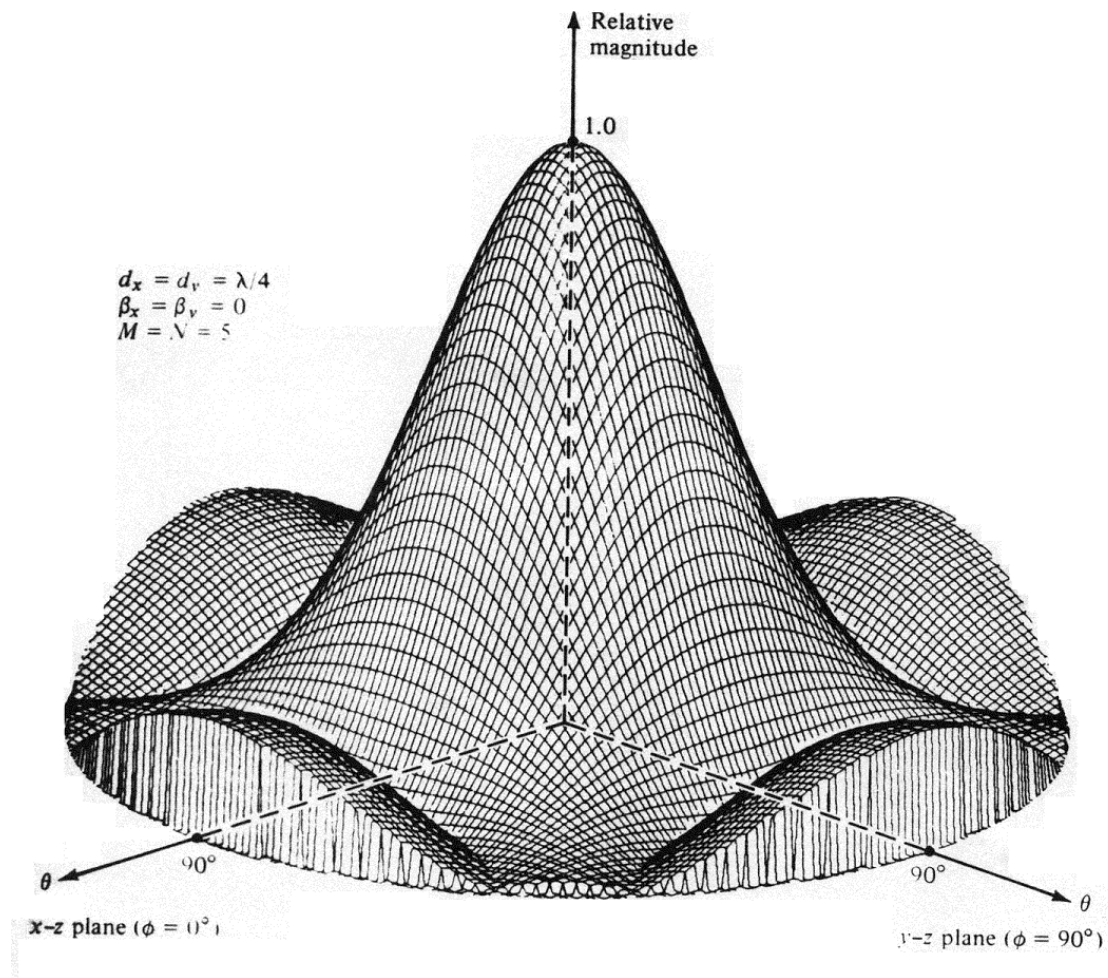


Fig. 6.24, pp.313 Balanis

3-D pattern of a 5-element square planar uniform array without grating lobes ( $d = \lambda/2$ ,  $\beta_x = \beta_y = 0$ ):

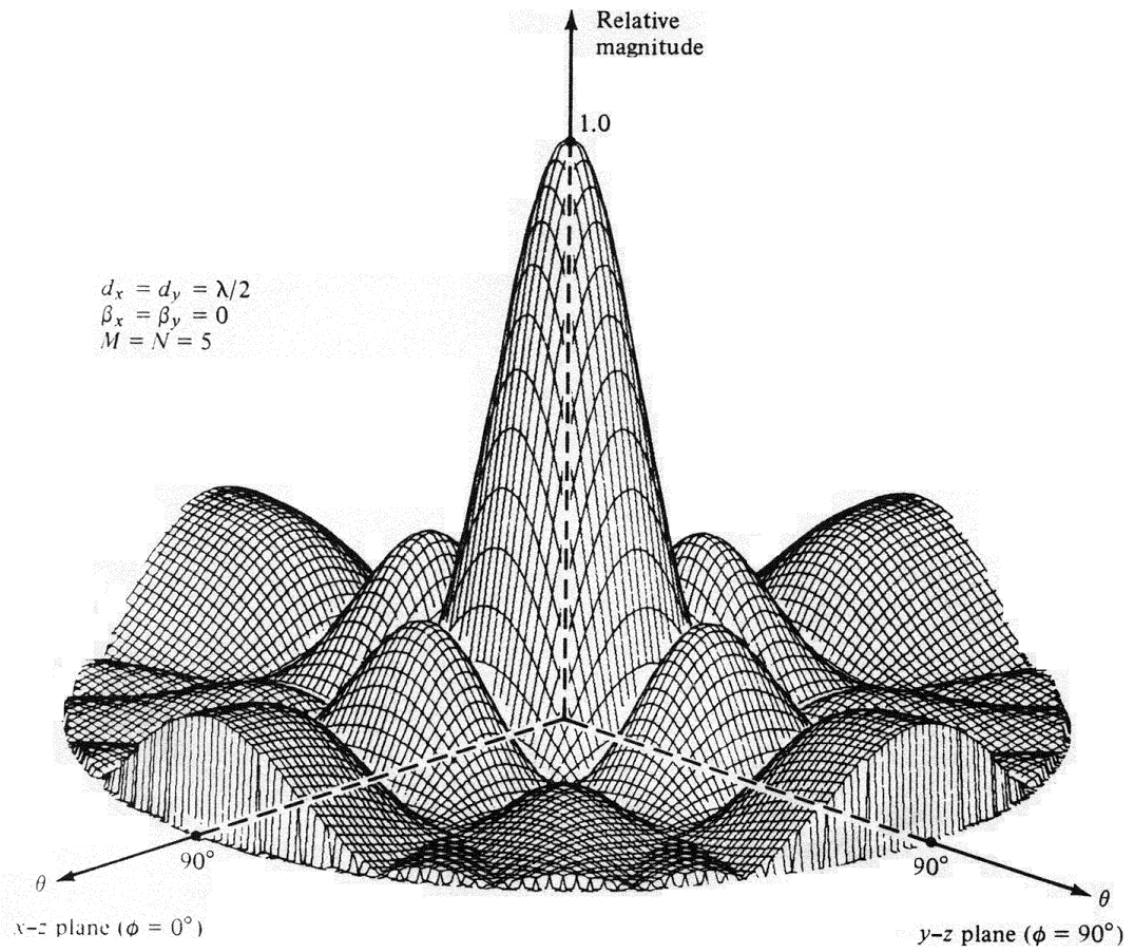
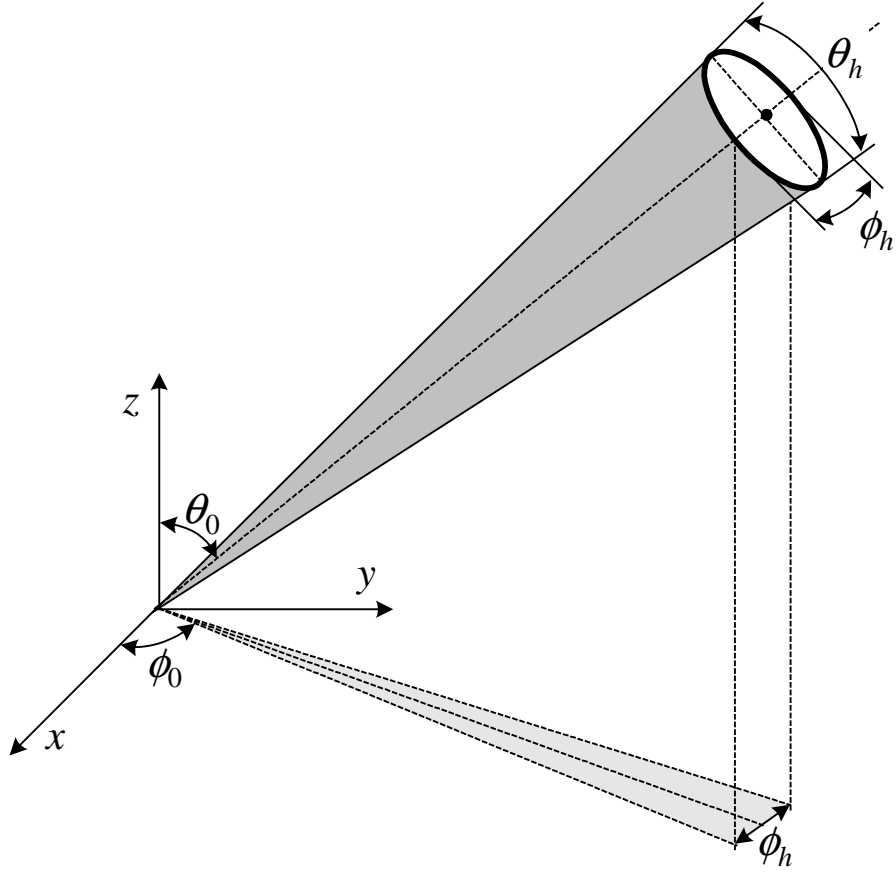


Fig. 6.25, pp.314, Balanis

Notice the considerable decrease in the beamwidth as the spacing is increased from  $\lambda/4$  to  $\lambda/2$ .

## 1.2 The beamwidth of a planar array



A simple procedure, proposed by R.S. Elliot<sup>1</sup> will be outlined. It is based on the use of the beamwidths of the linear arrays building the planar array.

For a large array, whose maximum is near the broad side, the elevation plane HPBW is approximately:

$$\theta_h = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta_0 \left[ \Delta \theta_x^{-2} \cos^2 \phi_0 + \Delta \theta_y^{-2} \sin^2 \phi_0 \right]}} \quad (18.18)$$

<sup>1</sup> "Beamwidth and directivity of large scanning arrays", *The Microwave Journal*, Jan. 1964, pp.74-82

where:  $(\theta_0, \phi_0)$  specify the main-beam direction;

$\Delta\theta_x$  is the HPBW of a linear broadside array whose number of elements  $M$  and amplitude distribution is the same as that of the  $x$ -axis linear arrays building the planar array;

$\Delta\theta_y$  is the HPBW of a linear BSA whose number of elements  $N$  and amplitude distribution is the same as those of the  $y$ -axis linear arrays building the planar array.

The HPBW in the plane, which is orthogonal to the  $\phi = \phi_0$  plane and contains the maximum, is:

$$\phi_h = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\Delta\theta_x^{-2} \sin^2 \phi_0 + \Delta\theta_y^{-2} \cos^2 \phi_0}} \quad (18.19)$$

For a square array ( $M = N$ ) with amplitude distributions along the  $x$  and  $y$  axes of the same type, equations (18.18) and (18.19) reduce to:

$$\theta_h = \frac{\Delta\theta_x}{\cos \theta_0} = \frac{\Delta\theta_y}{\cos \theta_0} \quad (18.20)$$

$$\phi_h = \Delta\theta_x = \Delta\theta_y \quad (18.21)$$

From (18.20), it is obvious that the HPBW in the elevation plane very much depends on the elevation angle  $\theta_0$  of the main beam.

The HPBW in the azimuthal plane  $\phi_h$  does not depend on the elevation angle  $\theta_0$ .

The beam solid angle of the planar array can be approximated by:

$$\Omega_A = \theta_h \phi_h \quad (18.22)$$

or



$$\Omega_A = \frac{\Delta\theta_x \Delta\theta_y}{\cos^2 \theta_0 \sqrt{\left[ \sin^2 \phi_0 + \frac{\Delta\theta_y^2}{\Delta\theta_x^2} \cos^2 \phi_0 \right] \left[ \sin^2 \phi_0 + \frac{\Delta\theta_x^2}{\Delta\theta_y^2} \cos^2 \phi_0 \right]}} \quad (18.23)$$

### 1.3 Directivity

The general expression for the calculation of the directivity of an array is:

$$D_0 = 4\pi \frac{|AF(\theta_0, \phi_0)|^2}{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi |AF(\theta_0, \phi_0)|^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi} \quad (18.24)$$

For large planar arrays, which are nearly broadside, (18.24) reduces to:

$$D_0 = \pi D_x D_y \cos \theta_0 \quad (18.25)$$

where  $D_x$  is the directivity of the respective linear BSA, x-axis;  
 $D_y$  is the directivity of the respective linear BSA, y-axis.

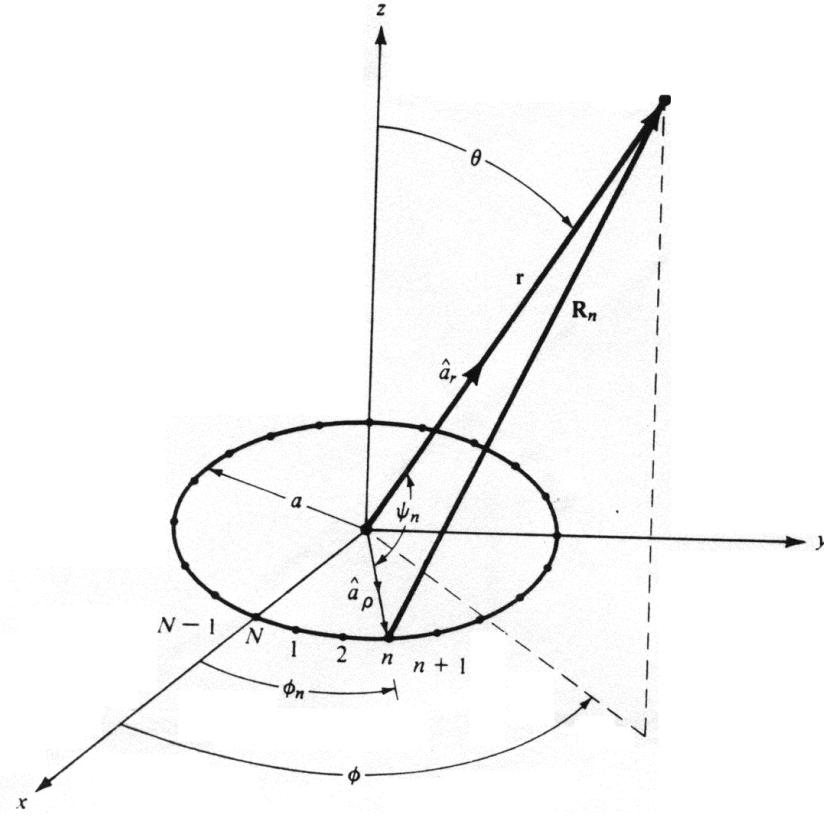
One can also use the array solid beam angle  $\Omega_A$  in (18.23) to calculate the approximate directivity of a nearly broadside planar array:

$$D_0 \simeq \frac{\pi^2}{\Omega_{A[Sr]}} \simeq \frac{32400}{\Omega_{A[\deg^2]}} \quad (18.26)$$

Remember:

- 1) The main beam direction is controlled through the phase shifts,  $\beta_x$  and  $\beta_y$ .
- 2) The beamwidth and side-lobe levels are controlled through the amplitude distribution.

## 2. Circular array



### 2.1 Array factor

The normalized field can be written as:

$$E(r, \theta, \phi) = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n \frac{e^{-jkR_n}}{R_n} \quad (18.27)$$

where:

$$R_n = \sqrt{r^2 + a^2 - 2ar \cos \psi_n} \quad (18.28)$$

For  $r \gg a$ , (18.28) reduces to:

$$R_n \simeq r - a \cos \psi_n \simeq r - a(\hat{a}_{\rho_n} \cdot \hat{r}) \quad (18.29)$$

In rectangular coordinate system:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{a}_{\rho_n} = \hat{x} \cos \phi_n + \hat{y} \sin \phi_n \\ \hat{r} = \hat{x} \sin \theta \cos \phi + \hat{y} \sin \theta \sin \phi + \hat{z} \cos \theta \end{cases}$$

Therefore:

$$R_n = r - a \sin \theta (\cos \phi_n \cos \phi + \sin \phi_n \sin \phi) \quad (18.30)$$

Finally,  $R_n$  is approximated in the phase terms as:

$$R_n = r - a \sin \theta \cos(\phi - \phi_n) \quad (18.31)$$

For the amplitude term, the approximation

$$\frac{1}{R_n} \simeq \frac{1}{r}, \text{ all } n \quad (18.32)$$

is made.

Assuming the approximations (18.31) and (18.32) are valid, the far-zone array field is reduced to:

$$E(r, \theta, \phi) = \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \sum_{n=1}^N a_n e^{jka \sin \theta \cos(\phi - \phi_n)} \quad (18.33)$$

where:  $a_n$  is the excitation coefficient (amplitude and phase);

$$\phi_n = \frac{2\pi}{N} n \quad \text{is the angular position of the } n\text{-th element.}$$

In general, the excitation coefficient can be represented as:

$$a = I_n e^{j\alpha_n}, \quad (18.34)$$

where  $I_n$  is the amplitude term, and  $\alpha_n$  is the phase of the excitation of the  $n$ -th element relative to a chosen array element of zero phase.

$$\Rightarrow E(r, \theta, \phi) = \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \sum_{n=1}^N I_n e^{j[ka \sin \theta \cos(\phi - \phi_n) + \alpha_n]} \quad (18.35)$$

The AF is obtained as:

$$AF(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{n=1}^N I_n e^{j[ka \sin \theta \cos(\phi - \phi_n) + \alpha_n]} \quad (18.36)$$

Expression (18.36) represents the AF of a circular array of  $N$  equispaced elements. The maximum of the AF occurs when all the phase terms in (18.36) equal unity, or:

$$ka \sin \theta \cos(\phi - \phi_n) + \alpha_n = 2m\pi, \quad m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \text{ all } n \quad (18.37)$$

The principal maximum ( $m = 0$ ) is defined by the direction  $(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ , for which:

$$\alpha_n = -ka \sin \theta_0 \cos(\phi_0 - \phi_n), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (18.38)$$

If a circular array is required to have maximum radiation in the direction  $(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ , then the phases of its excitations will have to fulfil (18.38). The AF of such an array is:

$$AF(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{n=1}^N I_n e^{jka[\sin \theta \cos(\phi - \phi_n) - \sin \theta_0 \cos(\phi_0 - \phi_n)]} \quad (18.39)$$

$$AF(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{n=1}^N I_n e^{jka(\cos \psi_n - \cos \psi_{0n})} \quad (18.40)$$

Here:

$\psi_n = \cos^{-1}[\sin \theta \cos(\phi - \phi_n)]$  is the angle between  $\hat{r}$  and  $\hat{a}_{\rho_n}$ ;  
 $\psi_{0n} = \cos^{-1}[\sin \theta_0 \cos(\phi_0 - \phi_n)]$  is the angle between  $\hat{a}_{\rho_n}$  and  $\hat{r}_{\max}$   
 pointing in the direction of  
 maximum radiation.

As the radius of the array  $a$  becomes very large as compared to  $\lambda$ , the directivity of the uniform circular array ( $I_n = I_0$ , all  $n$ ) approaches the value of  $N$ .

Uniform circular array 3-D pattern ( $N=10$ ,  $ka = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}a = 10$ )

