Solid State SPS Microwave Generation and Transmission Study
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SPS Pilot Beam Ionospheric Effects - Discussion of Critical Issues

1. INTRODUCTION

The ionosphere will introduce phase errors in the pilot beam system through a combination of "bias" and stochastic fluctuations effects. Specific actions must be taken to remove these errors in order to make the pilot beam system capable of performing its assigned function.

The approach available for the solution of the problem involves the use of averaging processes. However, in order to perform them in an effective manner, we must first measure and remove from the arriving phase of the pilot beam the steady state ionospheric "bias". The dual frequency scheme assumed for the SPS Pilot Beam Baseline System (October 1978 version) employing two tones one at either side of the carrier of the downcoming power beam, each separated from this carrier by $\Delta f = 100$ MHz, cannot accomplish this task. An alternative scheme based on the use of three frequencies can, on the contrary, do it. We review here-under its basic principle, which could be applied to a broad family of mechanizations. Once the "bias" is removed, we have to cope with the stochastic fluctuations. Starting point of any action in this sense must be a reliable estimate of the expected stochastic phase errors. This note also addresses this critical issue.

2. The 3-frequency versus the 2-frequency method for the removal of the ionospheric "bias"

The SPS Pilot Beam Baseline System (October 1978 version) suggested to implement the pilot beam approach with a dual frequency arrangement. Two carriers were allocated at either side of the 2.45 GHz carrier of the downcoming power beam, each with a typical separation from it of $\Delta f = 100$ MHz. From phase measurements performed at these two carriers, it was claimed that it would be possible, through suitable processes, to remove the ionospheric effects.

Unfortunately this is not the case. In fact, it can be shown that the two-frequency method cannot work unless the spacing between the two frequencies is at least one order of magnitude smaller than the spacing chosen in the Baseline System design. The reason is that there is a severe ambiguity in the value of the measured phase, that does not make it possible to remove the ionospheric bias. A numerical example will clarify the difficulty.
The value of the phase path length over a transionospheric path with geometric length \( L \) and total electron content \( \int N_{dl} \), is given at the frequency \( f \) by the expression:

\[
\phi_{\text{rad}} = 2\pi \frac{1}{v_1} (fL - \frac{40}{f} \int N_{dl})
\]  

(1)

where \( v_1 \) is the velocity of light in free space.

By specializing Equation (1) to the frequencies \( f_1 \) and \( f_2 \), by then multiplying \( \phi_1 \) (at frequency \( f_1 \)) by the ratio \( f_2/f_1 \), and by finally subtracting from this product the quantity \( \phi_2 \) (phase at the frequency \( f_2 \)) we obtain:

\[
\Delta \phi_{\text{rad}} = \phi_1 \frac{f_2}{f_1} - \phi_2 = 2\pi \cdot \frac{40}{v_1} \left( \frac{1}{f_2} - \frac{f_2}{f_1} \right) \int N_{dl}
\]

(2)

In Equation (2) we have:

\[
\begin{align*}
    v_1 &= 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/sec} \\
    f_1 &= 2.35 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
    \text{Values chosen by the Baseline System Design} \\
    \text{(We assume here a large value for this quantity, a value, however, that is not uncommon at all)}
    \end{array} \right.
    \\
    f_2 &= 2.55 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz} \\
    \int N_{dl} &= 10^{18} \text{ el/m}^2
\end{align*}
\]

Under these assumptions, we have

\[
\Delta \phi = 9.2 \times 2\pi
\]

This is an unacceptable value for \( \Delta \phi \). The reason is that phase measuring instrumentation of every conceivable type will read for the \( \Delta \phi \) above the erroneous value \( 0.2 \times 2\pi \), from which an incorrect value for \( \int N_{dl} \) would be derived. In other words, no instrumentation or approach exists that could eliminate the \( 2\pi \) ambiguity (in this case a 9 fold ambiguity) from the measurements.

Equation (2) shows that in order to keep \( \Delta \phi < 2\pi \), for \( \int N_{dl} = 10^{18} \text{ el/m}^2 \) and for \( f_2 = 2.55 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz} \), we must keep \( \Delta f < 10 \text{ MHz} \), a spacing an order of magnitude smaller than contemplated by the Baseline System Design (by adopting \( \Delta f = 10 \text{ MHz} \), we would have \( \Delta \phi = 0.89 \times 2\pi \)). However, in the SPS case, it is not
advisable to allocate the carriers of the pilot beam system so close to the power beam carrier.

This fundamental limitation of the 2-frequency method was recognized twenty years ago by Prof. Von R. Eshleman of Stanford University. He solved the problem of achieving wide carrier-to-carrier separation in an ionospheric correction link and still avoided the $2\pi$ ambiguity problem, with his scheme known as the "3-frequency method" (Eshleman et al, 1960; Burns and Fremouw, 1970).

The basic principle of the method can be illustrated as follows. Let us consider three frequencies

\[ f_1 = f_0 - \Delta f \]
\[ f_0, \]
\[ f_2 = f_0 + \Delta f, \]

and let's call $\phi_1$, $\phi_0$ and $\phi_2$ the phase path lengths in a transitionospheric link, respectively at $f_1$, $f_0$ and $f_2$.

The following expressions apply for the two phase differences ($\phi_1 - \phi_0$) and ($\phi_0 - \phi_2$):

\[
\Delta \phi_A = \phi_1 - \phi_0 = 2\pi \cdot \frac{1}{v_1} \left\{ (f_1 - f_0) L - 40 \left( \frac{1}{f_1} - \frac{1}{f_0} \right) \right\} \int \text{NdI}
\]

\[
\Delta \phi_B = \phi_0 - \phi_2 = 2\pi \cdot \frac{1}{v_1} \left\{ (f_0 - f_2) L - 40 \left( \frac{1}{f_0} - \frac{1}{f_2} \right) \right\} \int \text{NdI}
\]

At this point, the method goes further than is usually the case with the dual frequency approach, and requires the computation of the difference of the two differences above:

\[
\Delta \phi_A - \Delta \phi_B = 2\pi \cdot \frac{40}{v_1} \left( \frac{2\Delta f^2}{f_0^3} \right) \int \text{NdI}
\]

(3)

This is the fundamental observable, from which $\int \text{NdI}$ is computed.
A numerical evaluation of Equation (3) shows that for \( N_d l = 10^{18} \text{e}1/m^2 \) and for \( f_0 = 2.55 \times 10^9 \text{Hz} \),

\[
\Delta \phi_A - \Delta \phi_B = 2\pi (1.6 \times 10^{-17}) \Delta f^2
\]

With the use of the three frequencies, the avoidance of the \( 2\pi \) ambiguity brings forth the following requirement for the maximum allowable value of the frequency separation among the various tones:

\[
\Delta f_2 \leq \frac{1}{1.6 \times 10^{-12}}
\]

\[\Delta f \leq 249 \text{ MHz}\]

We conclude therefore that we can easily meet the requirements of keeping any carrier of the multifrequency pilot beam system at least 100 MHz away from the frequency of the downcoming power beam and still retain the ability of correcting for the ionospheric "bias" without \( 2\pi \) ambiguities.

Figure 1 shows a possible way in which the various frequencies could be allocated. Several other suitable allocations are also possible. See Appendix A for a possible mechanization of the 3-frequency scheme.
Once that, with the use of the three frequency method, it has been possible to remove from the measured phase the effect of the ionospheric "bias" at the wanted pilot beam frequency, we can properly apply to the residuals suitable averaging processes in order to reduce the effect of the stochastic fluctuations due to ionospheric inhomogeneities.

3. **Stochastic Phase Fluctuations due to Ionospheric Inhomogeneities**

In this past decade surprising results have been obtained by researchers active in the area of ionospheric scintillation, while experimenting with trans-ionospheric paths at microwave. Unexpectedly, large scintillation indexes have been observed at microwave in space-to-ground links that cross the nighttime F region of the ionosphere at equatorial, tropical and auroral latitudes. Observed phase fluctuations were found to be much larger than could be expected from such analytical approaches as the "thin scattering layer" theory. In fact, by applying thin scattering theory to the spectral density distribution $\frac{\delta n}{n}$ versus $K$ (wave number, $\text{Km}^{-1}$) of the electron density inhomogeneities actually measured in the ionosphere with rockets and other means, the phase fluctuations that would be computed for a microwave link that crosses the region containing these inhomogeneities are much smaller than experimentally ascertained. A "workman-like approach" to solve at least temporarily the difficulty (while a suitable new theory is being worked out) is the one suggested by Basu and Basu (1976). It involves altering "phenomenologically" the spectral density distribution of Figure 2 by moving the curve A-A to the B-B location and using the new curve as the basis for the computation of phase fluctuations with the thin scattering theory formula. In this way, results are obtained that match the observations. The applicable formula is (Costa and Kelly, 1976):

$$\phi_0^2 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \pi (r_e \lambda)^2 \frac{\alpha}{\beta} (L \sec \theta) \frac{(\delta n)^2}{K_0}$$

where:

- $\phi_0$ = rms phase fluctuation, rad.
- $r_e$ = classical radius of electrons $= 2.818 \times 10^{-15}$ m
- $\theta$ = angle between the ray path and the vertical
$L$ = thickness of the irregular layer, m (at ionospheric $F_2$ layer heights)

$\lambda$ = wavelength of the propagating wave, free space value, m ($\lambda = 0.12245$ m at 2.45 GHz)

$\beta^2 = \cos^2 \psi + \alpha^2 \sin^2 \psi$, where $\psi$ is the angle between the direction of the Earth magnetic field and the ray path and where $\alpha$ is the axial ratio

$\frac{\beta}{\alpha} \approx 1$ for equatorial paths ($\psi = 90^\circ$, $\beta^2 = \alpha^2$)

$K = \text{wave number} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_s}$ (where $\lambda_s$ is the spatial wavelength of the irregularities)

$K_0 = \text{outer scale wave number}$

For equatorial transionospheric paths, we have in (4) $L = 2 \times 10^5$ m, $K_0 = 0.31$ Km$^{-1}$

$\frac{\beta}{\alpha} \approx 1$, sec $\theta \approx 1$.

---

**Figure 2.** The dashed line is a model spectrum used by Costa and Kelley (1976) to characterize the breakup of density gradients in upwelling structures. The solid line is a spectrum used by Basu and Basu (1976) to typify extended topside irregularities. (From Basu and Kelley, 1977)
To proceed in the computation, we must define the wave number interval in the x-axis of Figure 2, across which to integrate the spectral density curve. This interval must include all spatial wavelengths equal to or smaller than the "size" of the pilot beam ray at ionospheric heights. This could not be derived from purely geometrical considerations (where a 10 meter spatial size F layer height would be obtained). The value obtained this way would not have physical meaning. On the contrary, physically meaningful results are obtained by constructing the Fresnel ellipsoid (Fagot et al, 1959) for the ground-to-space pilot beam link (Figure 3). The radius of the first Fresnel zone at ionospheric height is the rational representation of the "size" of the ray. From Figure 3, we have that this radius is:

\[ \text{radius of the first Fresnel zone} = FB = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda \times d_1 \times d_2}{d_1 + d_2}} \]

In the case of the peak of the F layer, \( d_1 \approx 400 \text{ Km} \), \( d_2 = 37500 \text{ Km} \) and therefore

\[ FB = 2.2 \times 10^2 = 220 \text{ meters} \]

The interval of integration in Figure 2 must therefore be extended from at least a spatial wavelength equal to this value down to all smaller wavelengths (wave numbers from \( \sim 28 \text{ Km}^{-1} \) to \( \sim 300 \text{ Km}^{-1} \)). Figure 2 yields:

\[ \frac{\delta n}{n} \approx \frac{0.025}{2} \sqrt{272} \approx 0.2 \]

and with an electron density in the F2 layer of \( 2.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^{-3} \), Equation (4) gives

\[ \phi_0 = 1.3 \times 10^{-11} (\delta n) = 1.3 \times 10^{-11} \times 0.2 \times 2.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ rad} \approx 38^\circ \]

This value of \( \phi_0 \) is a realistic estimate for the phase fluctuations to be expected at 2.45 GHz in transionospheric paths crossing perturbed regions such as the equatorial or the auroral ionosphere. In fact, this estimate is substantiated by the experimental evidence collected by the DNA wideband satellite (Fremouw et al, 1978). Figures 4 and 5 show fluctuations upwards of \( 35^\circ \) which is comparable with the above calculation. We are reminded that the DNA satellite could not see,
\[ \lambda = 0.12245 \text{ m} \]
\[ TF = d_1 \]
\[ FR = d_2 \]
\[ TR = d_1 + d_2 \]

\[ \frac{\sqrt{\lambda d_1 d_2}}{d_1 + d_2} = FB \]

First Fresnel Zone

Peak of F\textsubscript{2} layer

---

Figure 3. Fresnel Ellipsoid of the Pilot Beam Ray
Figure 4.  Frequency dependence of phase-scintillation index, during two 20 sec periods of the pass above Poker Flat, 29 May 1976 compared with an $f^{-1}$ dependence.
(from Fremouw et al, 1978)

Figure 5.  Frequency dependence of phase scintillation index during two 20 sec periods of pass recorded at Ancon on 16 Dec. 1976, compared with an $f^{-1}$dependence arbitrarily passed through the 413 MHz data point.
(from Fremouw et al, 1978)
(because of the integration time used in the measurements), spatial wavelengths shorter than approximately 25 m. However, because of the size of the Fresnel zone, (approximately 200 m), these results apply to our case. The question now is: what value for $\phi_0$ should be adopted in the design of, and associated experiments for, the SPS pilot beam system that is expected to cross the ionosphere at middle latitudes? There are two opposite factors that play a role in this decision:

1. Natural ionospheric inhomogeneities at mid latitude are smaller than at the equator and in the auroral zones. Vessot and Levine (1977) measured in a mid latitude transionospheric path phase fluctuations with rms value of about $4^\circ$ at S-band on a very quiet day, with the 3-frequency gravitational red-shift rocket probe experiment that they performed for NASA-MSFC. No data base exists, however, that would make it possible to compute the percentage of time during which, (in spread F events or other occurrences of mid latitude ionospheric perturbations), the value $\phi_0$, (that typically applies to equatorial paths), could be reached or even exceeded. However small that percentage might be, it could be significant in the overall performance of the pilot beam system;

2. The medium where the pilot beam will propagate in the SPS case is expected to be heated and perturbed by the downcoming power beam. The interactions phenomena could resemble the natural phenomena of field aligned striations and similar structures formation occurring at the magnetic equator and in the auroral zones. These are the natural causes of the phase perturbations illustrated in Figures 2, 4 and 5. Therefore, while waiting for the results of the ionospheric/magnetospheric heating experimental program (which is part of the SPS environmental assessment effort), it is advisable to adopt the equatorial or the auroral situations as representative of what is to be expected for the pilot beam when the SPS high-power radiation is "on". In other words, it is advisable to make the assumption that the phase fluctuations in a mid latitude transionospheric link perturbed by the SPS power beam heating will be of similar intensity to the ones observed as naturally occurring at the equator or in aurora-crossing transionospheric links.
It appears from the above that it is advisable, in Raytheon's opinion, to adopt the value $\delta_0 \approx 40^\circ$ for the expected phase fluctuations in the SPS pilot beam system and to design a system that can cope with this expectation as well as to design experiments that will address these parameters during the GBED program.

4. Conclusions

The ionospheric effects on the pilot beam phase stability and phase measurement accuracy will not be inconsequential and require the project's attention. However, several approaches are potentially suited to the solution of the various problems and could be adopted to make the pilot beam capable of operating within rational performance specifications in the expected conditions of ionospheric bias and stochastic fluctuations.

Developing further this approach should not add to the system complexity to the point that it could possibly lead to a potential program stoppage. On the contrary, the inclusion in the system of features that would make it work under the conditions above could only reinforce the SPS case.

5. References


Fagot, T., and Mague, P. (1959), La Modulation de frequence - Theorie Applicatie aux Faisceaux Hertziens Publisher; Soc. Fran Doc Electronique, Paris, Fra...
APPENDIX A

A POSSIBLE MECHANIZATION OF THE 3-FREQUENCY SCHEME
A POSSIBLE MECHANIZATION OF THE 3-FREQUENCY SCHEME

Figure A-1 illustrates the simplified block diagram of one of the possible mechanizations of the 3-frequency approach. The diagram follows closely the Stanford University design guidelines contained in the paper by Burns and Fremouw (1970).

We are reminded that it is quite all right to perform arithmetic manipulations on the phases of the arriving signals. This fully preserves phase coherence, and it is currently done in ionospheric correction schemes. Figure A-2 gives an example of the 3-frequency scheme adopted by Vessot and Levine (1977) to cancel the ionospheric bias error in their gravitational redshift experiment, conducted for NASA-MSFC. Their 3-frequency scheme characterized by extensive arithmetic manipulations of the phases worked perfectly and the ionospheric bias was eliminated from the phase observations (NASA awarded to Dr. Vessot the Gold Medal for Exceptional Achievement, in connection with this experiment). Raytheon has no doubt that the technology exists today to implement the ionospheric correction scheme recommended for SPS in Section 2.

Literature References for Appendix A


Figure A-1. Three Frequency Approach - Simplified Block Diagram of Proposed Mechanization
Figure A-2. Schematic Concept of the Doppler-Cancelling System. 
(Vessot and Levine, 1977)
IONOSPHERIC COLUMNAR ELECTRON DENSITY

- This function is a random process in the time domain. It has a non-zero mean.

- This mean value is called the ionospheric "bias."

- The "bias" is slowly changing with time (1 sample every 15 minutes is an appropriate sampling rate).

- Superimposed to the "bias" there are random fluctuations (ionospheric scintillation phenomenon). Typical scintillation rates are between 0.1/minute to 10/minute, requiring sampling rates of approximately one every 3 minutes to one every 2 seconds respectively.
APPENDIX B
MICROWAVE POWER TRANSMISSION ANTENNA ANALYSES

I. Introduction

Antenna tradeoffs are described for the application of solid state technology to microwave power transmission from space. The concept is illustrated in Figure B-1. Solar power impinges on mirrors which concentrates the sun's rays on a panel of solar cells. The solar power is converted to DC to power solid state RF amplifiers for subsequent beaming to earth\[1\].

The excitation for the amplifier modules is derived from a pilot signal from earth which is combined, frequency shifted, phase conjugated, and divided among the amplifiers. The power output per GaAs FET amplifier is expected to range between 5 and 30 watts at 80% efficiency.

The pilot signal is transmitted from the ground at several frequencies simultaneously as listed in Table B-1, thereby averaging the pilot electromagnetic transmission characteristics through the ionosphere. The received pilot wavefront at the spacetenna is retrodirected by dedicated phase conjugation and reference circuitry forming a pencil beam pointed back to earth. Here a large rectenna is used to collect the microwave power for conversion to DC and subsequent AC distribution to the utility power grid\[2\], [3], [4].

The beam of electromagnetic power transmitted to the ground is at 2.45 GHz (.121 m wavelength) under the tentative constraint of 23 mW/cm\(^2\) power density at the beam peak in the ionosphere. The objective is to deliver the maximum power to the utility grid at lowest cost without exceeding this power density.

II. Parametric Studies

The objective is to deliver to the utility grid the maximum power at the lowest cost under the 23 mW/cm\(^2\) ionospheric power density constraint. The power delivered to the grid is given by

\[
P_g = P_T n_B n_o
\]

(B-1)
Figure B-1. Solid-State Sandwich - Typical SPS Concept
Table B-1  Solid State MPTS Parameters and Constraints

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FREQUENCY (TRANSMIT)</td>
<td>2.450 GHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREQUENCIES (PILOT)</td>
<td>2.301 GHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SYNCHRONOUS ORBIT RANGE</td>
<td>$37 \times 10^3$ km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER DENSITY LIMITS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT IONOSPHERE</td>
<td>23 mW/sq cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT EDGE OF RECTENNA</td>
<td>1 mW/sq cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEOPLE SAFETY</td>
<td>0.1 mW/sq cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELECTROMAGNETIC INTERFERENCE</td>
<td>-154 dBW/m$^2$/4 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOLAR FLUX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOMINAL</td>
<td>1350 W/m$^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USEFUL</td>
<td>820 W/m$^2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
where $P_T$ is the total available power at the output of the active transmit elements. $\eta_B$ is the beam efficiency and $\eta_0$ includes the atmospheric efficiency ($\eta_{AT}$), the array efficiency ($\eta_A$), the rectenna conversion efficiency ($\eta_{RF-DC}$), and the power grid interface efficiency ($\eta_i$).

The cost to develop this power is critically dependent on the size and weight of the spacetenna and secondarily on the size of the rectenna and on the real estate at the ground site. It is therefore desirable to have the smallest diameter spacetenna with amplifier modules and radiating elements arranged to transmit at the maximum power density.

It is also noted that the maximum power density capability of the active elements is dependent on thermal considerations which include primarily: junction temperature, amplifier junction waste heat, waste heat from the rest of the active element, waste heat from the DC distribution system, solar load on the microwave side and solar cell waste heat. These are discussed more completely in Sections 6 and 8.

A uniformly illuminated aperture with each active element operating at the same power level would satisfy this objective except for $\eta_B$, the beam efficiency. The beam efficiency is the ratio of the power subtended by a given solid angle of the beam to the total power radiated.\[11\] A uniformly illuminated aperture has high sidelobes which are not collected by the rectenna, therefore wasting power and resulting in a lower beam efficiency. Other illumination functions such as hyperspheroidal and Gaussian are known to result in higher beam efficiencies.\[5\] These as well as uniform have been included in the parametric study; the necessary formulas are described below.

The power density at the ionosphere is given by

\[ P_{d_{i}} = \frac{P_T G_T}{4\pi R_0^2} \eta_{AR} \eta_{AT} \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-2)

where $P_T$ is the total power transmitted, $G_T$ the gain of the spacetenna, $\eta_{AR}$ the array losses, $\eta_{AT}$ the atmospheric losses and $R_0$ the synchronous orbit range.

The spacetenna gain is given by

\[ G_T = \frac{4\pi A_T}{\lambda_0^2} \eta_i \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-3)
where \( A_T \) is the area of the transmitting antenna (\( A_T = \frac{\pi}{4} D_T^2 \) for circular aperture), \( \lambda_0 \) is the transmitting wavelength and \( \eta_i \) is the illumination taper efficiency.

The available transmitted power is

\[
P_T = P_0 A_T F
\]

\[(B-4)\]

where \( P_0 \) is the transmit power density at the active element and \( F \) is the power taper factor.

It has been determined that hypersphroidal is the illumination with the highest beam efficiency. Gaussian illumination taper closely approximates this function and has therefore been used in the parametric study.

The Gaussian illumination power density is given by

\[
P = P_0 e^{-2KR^2}
\]

\[(B-5)\]

This results in an available transmitted power level of

\[
P_T = \int_0^{R_T} \int_0^{2\pi} P_0 e^{-2KR^2} r dr d\phi
\]

\[(B-6)\]

\[
P_T = \frac{P_0 \pi}{2K} \left(1 - e^{-2KR_T^2} \right)
\]

\[(B-7)\]

\( K \) is related to the edge taper \( B \) in dB and the spacelenna radius

\[
K = \frac{.115 B}{R_t^2}
\]

\[(B-8)\]

\[
F = \frac{1 - 10^{-B/10}}{0.23B}
\]

\[(B-9a)\]

and substituting for \( F \) in Equation (B-4),

\[
P_T = \frac{P_0 A_T (1 - 10^{-B/10})}{.23 B}
\]

\[(B-9b)\]
The power density at the ionosphere is a function of the power available as well as the illumination taper efficiency $\eta_i$.

\[
P_{d_i} = \frac{P_T A_T}{(R_o \lambda_o)^2} \eta_{AV} \eta_{AT} \eta_i \tag{B-10}
\]

The illumination taper efficiency is given by the ratio of the power at the peak of the beam to the total available power in the aperture,

\[
\eta_i = \frac{\sqrt{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} P_o e^{-K_r^2} r r'd\phi}}{P_o A_t (1 - 10^{-B/10})} \tag{B-11}
\]

\[
\eta_i = \frac{2 (1 - 10^{-B/20})^2}{.115(1 - 10^{-B/10})} \tag{B-12}
\]

From (B-7), (B-10) and (B-12) the diameter of the spacetenna can be determined as follows:

\[
D_T = 2 \left( \frac{P_{d_i}}{P_o \eta_{AR} \eta_{AT}} \right)^{.25} \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_o R_o}{\pi (1 - 10^{-B/20})}} \tag{B-13}
\]

The diameter of the spacetenna as a function of the edge taper for various element power densities is plotted in Figure B-2.

The parameters for uniform illumination are obtained from (B-10) for $\eta_i = 1$ and from (B-4) for $F = 1$ where

\[
P_{d_i} = \frac{P_o A_T^2}{(R_o \lambda_o)^2} \eta_{AV} \eta_{AT} \tag{B-14}
\]

and

\[
D_T = 2 \left( \frac{P_{d_i}}{P_o \eta_{AR} \eta_{AT}} \right)^{.25} \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_o R_o}{\pi}} \tag{B-15}
\]
Figure B-2 Spacetenna Diameter and Power Density Vs Edge Taper
which is the same result obtained by substituting $10^{-B/20} \approx 1 - .115B + (.115B)^2$ into Equation (B-13) and letting $B = 0$ dB edge taper.

Determining the power delivered to the grid requires exploration of the second constraint which is to restrict the power density outside of the rectenna diameter to be less than 1 mW/cm$^2$. There is also a third constraint which is for the power density outside of a fenced area to be less than 0.1 mW/cm$^2$. This third constraint has a cost impact associated with land acquisition. These two constraints can be examined using similar formulations which depend on the antenna pattern of the spacetenna.

A circular Gaussian illumination taper has been assumed on the spacetenna which for 0 dB edge taper encompasses uniform illumination. For this Gaussian illumination the first sidelobe level versus edge taper is shown in Figure B-3\[8\]. In Figure B-4 is plotted the angular location from the aim-axis corresponding to the -13.6 dB (1 mW/cm$^2$ and the -23.6 dB (0.1 mW/cm$^2$) levels in terms of

$$U = \frac{D}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$

(B-16)

Assuming that the spacetenna line of sight is perpendicular to a plane at the earth's surface, then the pattern of equi-amplitude contours will intersect this plane in concentric circles whose diameter is

$$D = 2R_0 \tan \theta$$

(B-17)

From (B-16), (B-17) and (B-13),

$$D = \left( \frac{P_o \eta_{AR} \eta_{AT}}{P_{d_j}} \right)^{1/4} \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_0 R_0 \pi (1 - 10^{-B/20})}{.115B}} u$$

where $P_{d_j}$ is the power density at the peak of the main lobe at the ground.

From this equation, the rectenna diameter has been computed and plotted in Figure B-5 versus edge taper and corresponds to the spacetenna diameters and peak power densities listed in Figure B-2.

Examples of the far field antenna patterns and rectenna and fence locations for uniform illumination and 10 dB Gaussian edge taper are shown in Figures B-6 and B-7. A 10 dB Gaussian taper can use a smaller rectenna and fenced area but requires a larger spacetenna than the corresponding uniform illumination case.
Figure B-3 First Sidelobe Level for Truncated Gaussian Taper
SECOND SIDELOBE
-23.8 dB (<0.1 mW/cm²)

-23.6 dB (0.1 mW/cm²)

FIRST SIDELOBE
-23.6 dB (0.1 mW/cm²)

-13.6 dB (1 mW/cm²)

RECTENNA EDGE

MAIN LOBE

FENCE

U = D/λ Sinθ for λ = 0.121 m

Note: Power levels correspond to $P_d = 23$ mW/cm²

$U = \frac{D}{\lambda} \sin \theta$ for $\lambda = 0.121$ m

Figure B-4 Location of Power Density Limits on Ground for Gaussian Illumination Tapers at the Spacetenna
$P_{di} = \text{Power Density at Ionosphere} = 23 \text{ mW/cm}^2$

$P_{ar} = \text{Power Density at Edge of Rectenna} = 1. \text{ mW/cm}^2$

$P_0 (\text{w/m}^2)$

Figure B-5  Rectenna Diameter vs Gaussian Edge Taper
Figure B-6 Rectenna Size Vs Beam Efficiency - Uniform Illumination
Figure B-7  Rectenna Size vs Beam Efficiency - Tapered Illumination

- 95% EFF
- EFFICIENCY

\[ P_0 = 525 \text{ w/m}^2 \]

GAUSSIAN ILLUMINATION
10 dB TAPER

PATTERN LEVEL dB

-13.6 dB
-23.6 dB

RECTENNA RADIUS, km.

2.03 km (Rectenna Radius)
2.4 km (Site Radius)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

BEAM EFFICIENCY

.80 .85 .90 .95

Figure B-7 Rectenna Size vs Beam Efficiency - Tapered Illumination
One other antenna pattern related quantity in the power grid formula of
Equation (B-1) is the beam efficiency. For the uniform case the rectenna would
collect 82.5% of the available radiated power while the 10 dB Gaussian taper case
would collect 95% of the available radiated power.

The parameters for uniform illumination and for -10 dB taper are summarized in
Table B-2. The tapered case requires a 30% larger spacetenna to deliver 23% less
power than uniform; the rectenna diameter is 11% smaller and approximately 27% of
the land area is required. The costs for the land facilities are less but the
spacetenna and the transportation costs will be much greater. The cost comparison
is covered in a parametric format in Section 3.10.

Based on the above parametrics the uniformly illuminated spacetenna was
selected as a baseline.

As indicated earlier in this appendix, thermal considerations must be included
in the evaluation of an optimum design. These are covered in Sections 6 and 8.

Also certain land use aspects play an important role in the antenna system
selection.

Concerning this latter item, it became of interest to reduce the first and
second sidelobes in the uniformly illuminated patterns; the first to bring in the
fence thereby requiring less land use and the second to demonstrate that power
densities of lower than 0.1 mW/cm² were achievable outside the fenced area. In
order to accomplish these goals in a practical implementation, a single step taper
was investigated.

Results of the single step taper investigation are reported in Appendix C.
Table B-2
Comparison Between Uniform and -10 dB Gaussian Taper for Spacetenna

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antenna Illumination</th>
<th>$D_T$ (km)</th>
<th>$P_T$ (GW)</th>
<th>$\eta_B$</th>
<th>$\eta_O$</th>
<th>$P_g$ (GW)</th>
<th>$D_R$ (km)</th>
<th>$D_S$ (km)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uniform</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>1.568</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaussian -10 dB</td>
<td>2.545</td>
<td>1.045</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td>0.823</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


The objective of investigating the single step taper was to reduce spacetenna pattern sidelobes. Reduction of the first sidelobe would result in requiring less real estate at the fenced-in rectenna site and reduction of the second and other sidelobes would demonstrate that power densities lower than 0.1 mW/cm$^2$ were achievable outside the fenced-in area.

The single step taper illumination is illustrated in Figure C-1. This is considered to be a practical illumination which can be implemented using active elements operating at two different power levels.

The step taper illumination has been designed so that the power density at the center of the spacetenna aperture and power density at the peak of the beam are equal to those obtained with uniform illumination. This requires an increase in aperture diameter ($2k_2a$) to offset the step in aperture voltage ($C$); the inner diameter of the step being $2k_1a$.

By equating the power at the beam peak for the uniform and step taper cases, the illumination parameters are related as follows:

$$ k_2 = \left[ \frac{1 - k_1^2(1 - C)}{C} \right]^{1/2} $$

$$ k_1 = \left[ \frac{1 - k_2^2C}{1 - C} \right]^{1/2} $$

For example, if $C = 0.4$ and $k_1 = 0.8$, then $k_2 = 1.24$ which results in a 24% increase in aperture diameter. This is derived as follows:

**Uniform:**

$$ E_u(0) = \pi a^2 $$
Figure C-1 Spacetenna Step-Taper Aperture Illumination
Step:

\[
E(0) = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} C r \, dr \, d\psi = \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - C) r \, dr \, d\psi
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-3)

\[
E_s(0) = \pi (k_2 a)^2 C + \pi (k_1 a)^2 (1 - C)
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-4)

when \( E_u(0) = E_s(0) \),

\[
1 = k_2^2 C + k_1^2 (1 - C)
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-5)

and Equation (C-1) is obtained.

The far field pattern for a uniformly illuminated circular aperture

\[
E(u) = \frac{2 J_1(u)}{u}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-6)

and the corresponding patterns for the single step taper are obtained by super­imposing uniform illumination patterns of the step of amplitude \( C \) and the step of amplitude \( 1 - C \) with the following results:

\[
E(u) = 2 \left[ k_2^2 C \frac{J_1(u_2)}{u_2} + (1 - C) k_1^2 \frac{J_1(u_1)}{u_1} \right]
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-7)

where

\[
u = \frac{2 \pi a}{\lambda} \sin \theta
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-8)

\[
u_1 = k_1 u
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-9)

\[
u_2 = k_2 u
\]  \hspace{1cm} (C-10)

When \( C = 1, k_2 = 1 \) then Equation (C-7) is the pattern of a uniformly illuminated circular aperture, as shown in Figure C-2.

Examples of the patterns obtained by stepping the illumination under the above constraints are shown in Figure C-3. Here power steps of 1/3 and 1/4
Figure C-2 Antenna Pattern - Uniform Illumination

C = 1.00
k₁ = 1.0000
k₂ = 1.0000
Figure C-3  Sidelobe Comparison of Uniform Power Distribution With Two Examples of Single Step Edge Taper
(.58 and .5 voltage) result in significant second sidelobe reduction (between 5 and 10 dB) with a resulting increase in aperture size of between 8.9% and 13%.

The lower power region of the spacetenna diameter has excess potential solar cell area which can be used to provide power for inboard active elements. The thermal and power distribution considerations that permit this redistribution of power are discussed in Sections 6 and 8.

Another characteristic of the single step taper is that it results in a reduction in available power as compared to the uniform case as follows:

\[ \frac{P_{TT}}{P_{TU}} = k_1^2(1 - C^2) + C^2k_2^2 \]  \hspace{1cm} (C-11)

where

- \( P_{TT} \) = Total transmitted power in the tapered case;
- \( P_{TU} \) = Total transmitted power in the untapered case.

The results of applying this formula are shown in Figure C-4 where the available power ratio is plotted versus the spacetenna diameter ratio for various amplitude steps. For the cases shown in Figure C-3 the available power is 91% for the 1/3 power step and 85% for the 1/4 power step as compared to that available for uniform illumination.

Formula (C-12) for the available power has been derived by integrating the power in the circular aperture:

\[ P = \int_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - \psi)^2 \, r \, dr \, d\psi + \int_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} C^2 \, r \, dr \, d\psi \]  \hspace{1cm} (C-12)

The remaining pattern characteristic to be evaluated is beam efficiency. This has been computed relative to the uniform case. The power collected for uniform illumination versus pattern angle is determined from the beam efficiency

\[ n_u = \frac{\int_0^w \left( \frac{J_1(w)}{w} \right)^2 \, wd\psi}{P_{AV}} \]  \hspace{1cm} (C-13)

C-6
where \( w = \frac{(2\pi a/\lambda) \sin \theta}{P_{vu}} \) and \( P_{vu} = \pi a^2 \) is the power available for 1 volt amplitude.

The uniform illumination far field pattern is

\[
E(w) = 2\pi a^2 \frac{J_1(w)}{w}
\]

(C-14)

The power collected for the step taper case relative to uniform is determined from the step taper beam efficiency,

\[
\eta_s = \frac{4 \int_0^{w'} \left[ \frac{k_2^2 C J_1(w_2)}{w_2} + \frac{(1 - C) k_1^2 J_1(w_1)}{w_1} \right]^2 \, \text{d}w}{P_{vu}}
\]

(C-15)

where \( w_1 = k_1 w \) and \( w_2 = k_2 w \).

The relative efficiency of the step taper case is

\[
\eta_{sr} = \frac{\eta_s}{\eta_u} = \frac{\int_0^{w'} \left[ \frac{k_2^2 C J_1(w_2)}{w_2} + \frac{(1 - C) k_1^2 J_1(w_1)}{w_1} \right]^2 \, \text{d}w}{\int_0^{w'} \left( \frac{J_1(w)}{w} \right)^2 \, \text{d}w}
\]

(C-16)

and \( w' \) ranges from 0 to \( \pm 20 \).

The numerator approaches the power available ratio in the limit as plotted in Figure C-4.

The antenna patterns and relative efficiency ratio have been plotted for voltage step ratios between .2 and .8 over a range of spacetenna diameter ratios from 1 to 1.6 as shown in Figure C-5.

Sidelobe envelopes and efficiency \( \eta_{TA} \) are presented in Figures C-6, C-7 and C-8 for power tapers of .04, .09 and .16 respectively.

Figure C-9 shows the efficiency \( \eta_{TA} \) due to the step-tapered aperture power distribution. For uniform power distribution the first sidelobe is at -17.4 dB. The dotted curve shows the combinations of \( C^2 \) and \( k_2 \) to reduce the first sidelobe to -23.6 dB, thus eliminating the need for fences out of the main lobe. There
Figure C-4  Step Taper Power Ratio Vs Radius Factor
Figure C-5 Near-In Sidelobe and Relative Efficiency Data
Figure C-5 -- Continued

C-10
Figure C-5 -- Continued
\( C = 0.30 \)
\( k_1 = 0.7000 \)
\( k_2 = 1.4799 \)

\( C = 0.30 \)
\( k_1 = 0.7000 \)
\( k_2 = 1.4799 \)

\( C = 0.30 \)
\( k_1 = 0.75 \)
\( k_2 = 1.4216 \)

\( C = 0.30 \)
\( k_1 = 0.75 \)
\( k_2 = 1.4216 \)

Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued


\[
\begin{align*}
C &= 0.40 \\
k_1 &= 0.8000 \\
k_2 &= 1.2410 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Figure C-5 -- Continued

\[
\begin{align*}
C &= 0.40 \\
k_1 &= 0.8500 \\
k_2 &= 1.1901 \\
\end{align*}
\]
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued
$C = 0.50$
$k_1 = 0.8000$
$k_2 = 1.1662$

$C = 0.50$
$k_1 = 0.8000$
$k_2 = 1.1662$

$C = 0.50$
$k_1 = 0.8500$
$k_2 = 1.1303$

$C = 0.50$
$k_1 = 0.8500$
$k_2 = 1.1303$

Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued

C-23
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued

C-25
Figure C-5 Continued
$C = 0.70$

$k_1 = 0.8500$

$k_2 = 1.0578$

Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued

C = 0.70
k₁ = 0.8000
k₂ = 1.0744
Figure C-5 -- Continued

C = 0.70
k₁ = 0.7000
k₂ = 1.1039

C = 0.70
k₁ = 0.7000
k₂ = 1.0897
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-5 -- Continued
Figure C-6 Sidelobe Envelope and Efficiency For .04 Power Taper
Figure C.7 Sidelobe Envelope and Efficiency For 0.09 Power Taper
Figure C-8  Sidelobe Envelope and Efficiency For 0.16 Power Taper
$\eta_{TA}$ VERSUS $k_2$ FOR FREE SPACE SIDELOBES 23.6 dB DOWN FROM PEAK OF MAIN LOBE WITH ZERO dB MARGIN

$\eta_{TA}$ VERSUS $k_2$ FOR MAXIMUM MARGIN BELOW 23.6 dB DOWN

NOTE 1: 10.6% PENALTY IN $\eta_{TA}$ COMPARED TO UNIFORM (1ST SIDELOBE REDUCED FROM -17.4 dB TO -23.6 dB)

NOTE 2: ADDITIONAL 3.4% PENALTY IN $\eta_{TA}$ TO ACHIEVE MAXIMUM (4.76 dB) OF MAXIMA MARGINS BELOW -23.6 dB

Figure C-9 Single Stepped Taper Aperture Efficiencies and Sidelobe Margins Relative to Uniform

$\frac{\text{TAPERED SPACETENNA RADIUS}}{\text{UNIFORM SPACETENNA RADIUS}} = k_2$
is no dB margin included in the dotted line, while the solid line shows the combinations of \( C^2 \) and \( k_2 \) to achieve the maximum margin in sidelobes below the -23.6 dB point.

In that the cases for \( C = 3, 4 \) and 5 show significant potential for near in sidelobe control, the performance at further out sidelobes was investigated. As shown in Figures C-10 and C-11 the further out sidelobes are well behaved.

A glossary of terms is given in Table C-1.

The power delivered for the step taper \( (P_{DT}) \) can be obtained from

\[
P_{DT} = \frac{n_T \ n_u \ P_{TT}}{k_1^2 (1 - C^2) + C^2 k_2^2} \tag{C-17}
\]

where \( n_T \) is the beam efficiency for the tapered case referenced to uniform

\[
n_T = \frac{P_{DT}}{P_{Du}} \tag{C-18}
\]

\( P_{Du} \) is the power delivered for uniform illumination which is obtained from \( n_u \) the uniform illumination beam efficiency where

\[
n_u = \frac{P_{Du}}{P_{Tu}} \tag{C-19}
\]

\( P_{Tu} \) is the total available power for uniform illumination on the spacetenna. The available power for the step taper is less than this as follows:

\[
P_{TT} = P_{Tu} (k_1^2 (1 - C^2) + C^2 k_2^2) \tag{C-20}
\]

and

\[
P_{DT} = n_T \ n_u \ P_{Tu} \tag{C-21}
\]
Figure C-10 Typical Near-In Sidelobe and Relative Efficiency Behavior
Figure C-11 Typical Far Out Sidelobe and Relative Efficiency Behavior
\begin{align*}
C &= 0.50 \\
k_1 &= 0.6614 \\
k_2 &= 1.2500
\end{align*}

\textbf{Figure 11 -- Continued}

\begin{align*}
C &= 0.50 \\
k_1 &= 0.6614 \\
k_2 &= 1.2500
\end{align*}
Table C-1 Glossary of Terms

- **C**  Step Amplitude
- **a**  Spacetenna Radius
- **k_1**  Fractional Radius (Beginning of Step)
- **k_2**  Fractional Radius (End of Step)
  (Modified Spacetenna Radius)
- **U-Space**  \( U = \left(\frac{2\pi a}{\lambda}\right) \sin \theta \)
- **\( \lambda \)**  Operating Wavelength
- **\( \theta \)**  Angle Off Boresight of Spacetenna
- **Eta**  \( \eta_r \)  Ratio of Beam Efficiencies Between Step Taper \( \eta_S \) and Uniform \( \eta_U \)
  \[ \eta_r = \frac{\eta_S}{\eta_U} \]
- **P**  Ratio of Total Available Power for Step Taper Illumination to Uniform Illumination (Constraint is 23 mW/cm² at Beam Peak)
  - (1) First Sidelobe Peak
  - (2) Second Sidelobe Peak
  - (3) Third Sidelobe Peak
  - (4) Fourth Sidelobe Peak
APPENDIX D
DESIGNS, CONSIDERATIONS AND ISSUES

ABSTRACT

Progress in analysis and design of solid state approaches to the SPS Microwave Power Transmission System is reviewed with special emphasis on the Sandwich concept and the issues of maintenance of low junction temperatures for amplifiers to assure acceptable lifetime. Ten specific issues or considerations are discussed and their resolution or status is presented.

Introduction and Background

Investigations of Microwave Power Transmission System (MPTS) concepts by Raytheon in the past have not addressed solid state approaches due primarily to the problem of trying to achieve long life (30 years) in an application where high power density and limited waste heat dissipation capabilities are inherent.

Solid state amplifier efficiencies for the current technology are too low (50% to 70% range) requiring 50 to 30% of the DC power to be radiated as waste heat while keeping junction temperatures within acceptable limits. Recent projections of solid state amplifiers have indicated that the efficiency may be as high as 80%, requiring 20% of the DC power to be radiated as waste heat reducing the problem by a factor close to 2.

Solid state amplifiers operate at low voltage, 20 V, compared to 20 kV to 40 kV for tubes and the DC power transmission and conditioning system weights, complexities and cost for known overall system concepts were of major concern for KV power distribution systems and incredible for low voltage systems. The solid state sandwich concept, where the DC power distribution is a simple grid interface with the static microwave portion of the sandwich, is such that investigation of the solid state approach became of considerable interest.
Results have been encouraging and the concept is considered to warrant further and more in-depth investigation. The critical outstanding issues include the need for demonstration of the high efficiency for the amplifiers. When this is accomplished, the issues and considerations discussed herein become important.

Results of Investigation by Raytheon for NASA-MSFC

Raytheon's investigation has included the following tasks:
1. Definition and Math Modeling of Basic Solid State Microwave Devices
2. Initial Conceptual Subsystem and System Design
3. Sidelobe Control and System Selection
4. Assessment of Selected System Concept
5. Parametric Solid State MPTS Data Relevant to SPS Concept

An efficiency goal for the DC to RF amplifiers of 80% has been established. Although this has not been demonstrated it is considered to be a realistic goal and is therefore the basis for the investigation. Parametric data for 75% and 85% are included.

Conceptual subsystem and system design investigations resulted in the following:

(a) 1.95 km diameter transmitting antenna having uniform power density of 500 W/m² (RF);

(b) 4.5 km beam diameter or minor axis rectenna having maximum power density of 23 mW/cm²;

(c) Free space sidelobes < 0.1 mW/cm² for 2nd and further out sidelobes;

(d) First sidelobe above 0.1 mW/cm² out to the fenced minor axis of 9.2 km;

(e) Subarray size 32 x 32 elements 3.2m x 3.2m;

(f) Microwave subsystem for spacetenna weight of ~3 kg/m²;

(g) DC to DC efficiency of 0.51;

(h) Total transmitted power of \( \frac{\pi \times 1.95^2}{4} \times 500 \times 10^6 = 1.493 \times 10^9 \) W RF

(i) DC power into antenna = \( \frac{1.493 \times 10^9}{.99 \times .99 \times .8 \times .96 \times .98} = 1.493 \times 10^9 \)

\( = 2.02 \times 10^9 \) W DC

D-3
(j) Power out of rectenna to power grid = $1.49 \times 10^9 \times .98 \times .825 \times .89 \times .97$
\[= 1.04 \times 10^9 \text{ W DC}\]

(k) Antenna concept is one amplifier/transmitting antenna element (narrow bandwidth) with element printed on tape $1/4 \lambda$ from ground plane. Receiving antenna elements are wide bandwidth and are orthogonal to the transmit elements to minimize adverse coupling.

(l) Waste heat is passively radiated to deep space from pyrographite radiators having $\varepsilon = 0.8$ and $\alpha = 0.05$ thermal control coatings. Waste heat ($500 \text{ W/m}^2$) from the photovoltaic array is assumed to add to the heat load on the microwave side.

(m) Single step taper at the transmitting antenna was investigated to determine sensitivity for reduction of 2nd sidelobe. Significant reduction is achievable with single step.

(n) Further parametric investigations indicate that the RF power per element may be increased from 5 W/element to 6, thus permitting a significant reduction in spacelenna diameter for the same power density on the ground.

(o) Further detailed investigation of the concept is warranted.

Issues/Considerations

The issues and considerations along with their resolution and status, shown in the attached table, have evolved during the investigation. Each of them will be discussed in turn in the oral presentation and copies of the visual aids will be made available.
SOLID STATE SANDWICH CONCEPT
DESIGNS AND ISSUES

OWEN MAYNARD
RAYTHEON COMPANY

AT

NASA JSC
15-18 JANUARY 1980
SPACETENNA - DIPOLE CONCEPT

RECEIVING DIPOLES

TRANSMITTING DIPOLES

POWER COMBINER

BALLUN

FET POWER AMPLIFIER

POWER DIVIDER

GROUND PLANE

PHASE REFERENCE

THERMAL CONTROL

DC COMBINING

SOLAR CELLS
PRELIMINARY ESTIMATES OF POWER TRANSMISSION AND CONVERSION EFFICIENCY CHAIN

DC POWER FROM PHOTOVOLTAIC ARRAY

PHOTOVOLTAIC ARRAY POWER DISTRIBUTION

SLIP RINGS

ANTENNA POWER DISTRIBUTION

DC TO RF CONVERSION

.9368

.99

.98

.9995

N.A.

N.A.

.963

.99

.85

.85

.80

FILTERING

TRANSMITTING ANTENNA

ATMOSPHERIC LOSSES

RECTENNA ENERGY COLLECTION

.96

.9653

.98

.98

.98

.98

.88

.79

.825

RECTENNA ENERGY CONVERSION

GRID INTERFACES

POWER OUT DC POWER FROM OF GRID PHOTOVOLTAIC ARRAY

NASA REF CONCEPT (KLYSTRON)

MSFC SOLID STATE (MAY 1979)

RAYTHEON SOLID STATE STUDY

.89

.89

.89

.89

.97

.97

.97

.97

.97

.97

.55

.54

.51
ISSUES/CONSIDERATIONS

- LOW VOLTAGE DISTRIBUTION
- HARMONIC AND NOISE SUPPRESSION
- SUBARRAY SIZE
- MONOLITHIC TECHNOLOGY
- LIFETIME
- MUTUAL COUPLING
- INPUT TO OUTPUT ISOLATION
- CHARGED PARTICLE RADIATION EFFECTS
- TOPOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS
- SIDELOBE SUPPRESSION
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<tr>
<th>ISSUES/CONSIDERATIONS</th>
<th>RESOLUTION/STATUS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• LOW VOLTAGE DISTRIBUTION</td>
<td>FURTHER REFINEMENT REQUIRED TO MINIMIZE WEIGHT AND CONTROL THERMAL LEAKAGE</td>
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<tr>
<td>• HARMONIC AND NOISE SUPPRESSION</td>
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<td>• SIDELOBE SUPPRESSION</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
DC POWER CHARACTERISTICS OF SANDWICH

- DC POWER FROM PHOTOVOLTAIC BLANKET (PVB) TRANSMITTED TO POWER DISTRIBUTION LAYERS (+ GRID, - GROUND PLANE) (CONDUCTOR LENGTHS <20 CM).

- NEAR-UNIFORM VOLTAGE DIFFERENTIAL IS AVAILABLE CLOSE TO ALL USING EQUIPMENT ACROSS A SUBARRAY (15 V NOMINAL). LOCAL POWER CONDITIONING PROVIDED AT EACH AMPLIFIER MODULE.

- DC CONDUCTOR INCLUDING GROUND PLANE CROSS SECTIONS AND WEIGHT KEPT SMALL TO MINIMIZE "UNCONTROLLABLE" HEAT TRANSFER TO RF DEVICES HAVING LOWER CRITICAL JUNCTION TEMPERATURES THAN THOSE ASSOCIATED WITH PHOTOVOLTAIC PORTION OF SANDWICH.
  - TRANSFER OF POWER BETWEEN SUBARRAYS IS LIMITED BY GENERAL HEAT TRANSFER LIMITS AND BLOCKAGE FROM WASTE HEAT RADIATION POINT OF VIEW.
  - TRANSFER OF POWER FROM POWER GRID AND GROUND PLANE TO USING EQUIPMENT IS BY SHORT (DESIGN CONTROLLED) CONDUCTORS WITH BUILT-IN FUSES TO ISOLATE EQUIPMENT OVER-CURRENT FAILURES FROM THE POWER GRID AND GROUND PLANE.

- SPECIFIC WEIGHT OF GROUND PLANE IS .005 GM/WATT AND OF GRID IS .002 GM/WATT (WATTS ARE DC FROM PVB) FOR A SUBARRAY.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>FREQUENCY ALLOCATION NEEDS AT HARMONICS SHOULD BE CONSIDERED OR CONSIDER SPREAD SPECTRUM AND ACTIVE SUPPRESSION</td>
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<td>SIDELOBE SUPPRESSION</td>
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</table>
HARMONIC NOISE GENERATION, SUPPRESSION AND TRANSMISSION CHARACTERISTICS

- Noise filters are provided at the element module level on transmit and at the subarray conjugating electronics level on receive.

- Residual noise is non-coherent between subarrays.

- Residual harmonics may periodically be coherent over total transmitting array.

- Noise at earth is estimated as -181 dBW/m²/4 kHz.

- Harmonic power density at earth is estimated as -66 dBW/m² at 3rd harmonic and less at higher harmonics. Grating lobes for lower harmonics do not intersect the earth.

- Frequency allocation at 3rd and higher harmonics should be considered. Spread spectrum and active suppression concepts should be investigated as possible mitigating approaches.
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SUBARRAY CHARACTERISTICS

THE FOLLOWING HAVE BEEN CONSIDERED IN SIZING OF THE SUBARRAY:

- TOPOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS TO MINIMIZE ELEMENT SPACING (MAXIMIZE TRANSMITTED POWER DENSITY), MINIMIZE DIVISIONS OF DRIVE POWER (MAXIMIZE EFFICIENCY) AND PROVIDE FOR OTHER FUNCTIONS WITH MINIMUM LAYERING (MINIMIZE INTER-LAYER CONNECTIONS) RESULTED IN A BASELINE SIZE OF 3.2M X 3.2M.

- SUBARRAY STEERING AND POINTING CONSIDERED SATISFACTORY.

- ARRAY FLATNESS CONSIDERED TO IMPOSE NO OVER-RIDING ISSUES.

- REMAINING COMPLEXITIES ARE PRIMARILY IN PACKAGING, THERMAL AND INTERFACING BETWEEN SUBARRAYS.

- KNOWN SPECIFIC WEIGHT (~3 KG/M²) FOR 3.2M X 3.2M SUBARRAY MAY BE REDUCED BY 1% FOR 6.4M X 6.4M SUBARRAY WHILE POSSIBLE COMPLEXITY, HANDLING AND LOSSES NULLIFY THE KNOWN ADVANTAGE.

- LOSSES UNIQUE TO THE SUBARRAY ABOVE THE ELEMENT CELL LEVEL (ELEMENT SPACING 10 CM) HAVE BEEN ESTIMATED TO BE < 0.5%.

- NEAR-IN SIDELOBE INCREASES DUE TO THE SUBARRAY HAVE BEEN ESTIMATED TO BE <0.2 DB.
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MONOLITHIC TECHNOLOGY FOR THE SANDWICH

- The general concept of monolithic technology to incorporate multiple functions into one series of process at both the amplifier level and at the antenna layer level is the selected approach for high production rate and low cost purposes.

- Total sandwich concepts include interconnections between layers and between subarrays.
## Issues/Considerations

- Low Voltage Distribution
- Harmonic and Noise Suppression
- Subarray Size
- Monolithic Technology
- Lifetime
- Mutual Coupling
- Input to Output Isolation
- Charged Particle Radiation Effects
- Topological Considerations
- Sidelobe Suppression

## Resolution/Status

Lifetime affected by junction temperature limits and charged particles radiation requiring technology development in both areas.
LIFETIME CONSIDERATIONS

- LIFETIME GOAL IS 30 YEARS WITH LOW PROBABILITY OF FAILURE.
- PRIMARY FAILURE MECHANISMS RELATE MOST DIRECTLY TO JUNCTION TEMPERATURE.
- RANGE OF INTEREST FOR JUNCTION TEMPERATURE IS 100°C TO 150°C REQUIRING ADVANCED TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT FOR LONG LIFE.
- HEAT GENERATION AT AMPLIFIER DEVICES IS PRIMARY CONTRIBUTOR TO HIGH JUNCTION TEMPERATURE. ADVANCED TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT REQUIRED FOR HIGH EFFICIENCY.
- HEAT TRANSPORT FROM DEVICE TO WASTE HEAT RADIATOR IS A MAJOR SANDWICH DESIGN CONSIDERATION INVOLVING:
  - HIGH CONDUCTIVITY MATERIALS
  - DEDICATED REGIONS FOR WASTE HEAT RADIATION TO COLD SPACE
  - HIGH EMISSIVITY AND LOW ABSORPTIVITY THERMAL CONTROL SURFACES TO MAXIMIZE WASTE HEAT DISSIPATION WITHOUT EXCEEDING LONG-LIFE JUNCTION TEMPERATURES
- MATERIALS AND COATINGS MUTUAL TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT GOALS HAVE BEEN ESTABLISHED
  - MATERIALS SUCH AS PYROLYTIC GRAPHITE, HAVING HIGH THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY, IN CONJUNCTION WITH HIGH PERFORMANCE THERMAL CONTROL COATINGS NEED TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT TO ASSURE INTEGRITY AND PERFORMANCE OF HIGH EMISSIVITY AND LOW ABSORPTIVITY SURFACES.
  - WHERE WEIGHT IS NOT A SIGNIFICANT FACTOR COPPER MAY BE SATISFACTORY.
- OPTIMIZATION TOOLS HAVE BEEN CONCEIVED TO MAXIMIZE THE ABILITY OF THE TOTAL SANDWICH TO TRANSMIT HIGH POWER DENSITY.
AMPLIFIER JUNCTION TEMPERATURE VS WASTE HEAT

$T_J$ = Amplifier Junction Temperature
$P_A$ = Waste Power Generated at Amplifier Junction
$P_B$ = Waste Power $w/m^2$ - Uniform Over Thermal Radiator.

Conditions - $P_S$ = Incident Solar Power 
(1300 $W/m^2$)

Radiation Cooling - To Absolute Zero

$\varepsilon = 0.8$ Thermal Control
$\alpha = 0.05$ Coating Wt $= 1.59$ gm
Dia $= 8.66$ cm
t$_{root} = 1.0$ mm
t$_{tip} = 0.1$ mm

Thermal Conductor Wt. (gm)
Aluminum --- --- --- 6.35
Copper _______ --- 20.94
Pyrographite _______ 5.29
ACCELERATED LIFE DATA AND PROJECTIONS
FOR SOLID STATE SPS MPTS STUDY

TIME TO FAILURE (TTF)

1 2 10 20 30 YEARS

HOURS

FAILURE RATE

% Survival

T(°C)

100
101
102
103
104
105
106
108

1000/T

1 1.6
1.8
2.0
2.2
2.4
2.6

HRL
BTL
FLC30
HRL
BTL
FLC30

REFERENCE MTTF DATA

MSC T1 W AU
RAY CR AU
RAY THEON A L

114
122
131
140
150
160

100
200
300
350

350
POWER PER ELEMENT CELL (10 CM X 10 CM) RELATIONSHIPS

- Pyrographite Radiators (8.66 cm dia)
- Amplifier Efficiency = 0.8
- DC to RF Efficiency = 0.7377

\[ T_B = \text{EFFECTIVE CONCENTRATION RATIO FOR:} \]

\[ P_{RF} (\text{WATTS}) \]

\[ P_A (\text{WATTS}) \]

\[ T_J (\text{°C}) = \text{AMPLIFIER JUNCTION TEMPERATURE} \]

\[ T_S (\text{°C}) = \text{TEMPERATURE OF SOLAR CELLS} \]

\[ P_B = \text{THERMAL POWER FROM SOLAR CELLS RADIATED FROM MICROWAVE ARRAY} \]
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<tr>
<td>SIDELOBE SUPPRESSION</td>
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</table>
MUTUAL COUPLING CONSIDERATIONS

• ELEMENT SPACING (0.8 \(\lambda\)) TO SUPPRESS GRATING LOBES.

• PHYSICAL IMPLEMENTATION OF DIPOLES SUPPORTED ABOVE (0.25 \(\lambda\)) GROUND PLANE TO PREVENT SURFACE WAVE RESONANCES AND PROVIDE BALUN ACTION.

• DIPOLES AND TRANSFORMERS INCORPORATED IN CIRCUITRY USED FOR IMPEDANCE MATCHING IN PRESENCE OF MUTUAL COUPLING AMONG ELEMENTS.
ISSUES/CONSIDERATIONS

- LOW VOLTAGE DISTRIBUTION
- HARMONIC AND NOISE SUPPRESSION
- SUBARRAY SIZE
- MONOLITHIC TECHNOLOGY
- LIFETIME
- MUTUAL COUPLING
- INPUT TO OUTPUT ISOLATION

RESOLUTION/STATUS

ORTHOGONAL DIPOLES, OFFSET FREQUENCIES AND FILTERING PROVIDE SATISFACTORY ISOLATION OF TRANSMIT FROM RECEIVE SIGNALS

- CHARGED PARTICLE RADIATION EFFECTS
- TOPOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS
- SIDELOBE SUPPRESSION
INPUT TO OUTPUT ISOLATION

- Transmit and receive dipoles are orthogonal to maximize input/output isolation.

- Separate pilot frequencies from fundamental (outside high noise band).

- Filtering provided on pilot receiver will be implemented at the phase conjugation network at the subarray level.
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CHARGED PARTICLE RADIATION EFFECTS/CONSIDERATIONS

- VAN ALLEN BELT DISTRIBUTION OF ELECTRONS GEOMAGNETICALLY GO OUT TO 40-50K NAUTICAL MILES. NO SINGLE PEAK BUT VARIES IN TIME.

- 11 YEAR SOLAR SUNSPOT CYCLE RESULTS IN CHARGED ELECTRONS AND PROTONS HAVING POSSIBLY SIGNIFICANT EFFECTS.

- SOLAR WINDS RESULT IN LOW ENERGY ELECTRONS HAVING MUCH SMALLER EFFECTS THAN CHARGED PARTICLES TRAPPED IN VAN ALLEN BELTS.

- GaAs MESFETS TEND TO BE HARDEST OF EXISTING TECHNOLOGIES.

- TEST RESULTS ARE NON-CONCLUSIVE RE FAILURE OR DEGRADATION MECHANISMS AND EFFECTS OF PROTECTIVE SCHEMES.

- SELECTION OF GaAs TECHNOLOGY AND SHIELDING APPEAR TO BE MOST EFFECTIVE APPROACH AT PRESENT.

- ADVANCED TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT REQUIRED TO ADDRESS MATERIALS, FAILURE MECHANISMS AND PROTECTIVE SCHEMES.
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TOPOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

TOPOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS HAVE BEEN GIVEN AT THE TOTAL ARRAY, PHASE DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM, SUBARRAY AND ELEMENT MODULE LEVELS.

- STRUCTURAL SUPPORT FOR THE ARRAY IS CONSIDERED TO BE PROVIDED BY MAJOR STRUCTURAL RING AT PERIPHERY WITH TENSION GRID ASSURING RELATIVE FLATNESS. GRID MEMBERS ARE CONSIDERED TO BE SMALL WITH RESPECT TO SANDWICH THICKNESS AND DO NOT SHIELD RF OR WASTE HEAT RADIATION.

- MECHANICAL SUPPORT AT SUBARRAY BOUNDARIES ARE REQUIRED LARGELY FOR HANDLING, INSTALLATION AND REPLACEMENT PURPOSES. DETAILS OF HOW SUBARRAYS WILL BE MATED TO PRECLUDE ADVERSE DISCONTINUITIES ARE YET TO BE DEVELOPED.

- RF TRANSMIT ELEMENT LATTICE IS MAINTAINED IN REGION OF SUBARRAY EDGES TO MINIMIZE SYSTEMATIC ERROR SIDELOBES.

- FREE RADIATION OF WASTE HEAT FROM RADIATORS NEAR SUBARRAY EDGES IS COMPROMISED REQUIRING CUSTOMIZED EDGE TREATMENT TO MAXIMIZE THE EFFICIENCIES OF THE THERMAL RADIATORS AT THE EXPENSE OF WEIGHT AND COST. FURTHER INVESTIGATION IS REQUIRED.
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SIDELOBE SUPPRESSION CONSIDERATIONS

- UNIFORM VERSUS 10 DB GAUSSIAN ILLUMINATION AT SPACETENNA RESULTS IN THE FOLLOWING:

**ADVANTAGES FOR UNIFORM**
- SMALLEST TRANSMIT ANTENNA
- ALL AMPLIFIER MODULES OPERATE AT SAME POWER LEVEL
- EASY TRANSFER OF DC VOLTAGES FROM SOLAR ARRAY (IF DENSITY TAPERING IS EMPLOYED TO APPROXIMATE GAUSSIAN ILLUMINATION THEN DC DISTRIBUTION AND SOLAR ARRAY ARCHITECTURE BECOMES COMPLEX AND HEAVIER)

**DISADVANTAGES FOR UNIFORM**
- LOWER POWER BEAM EFFICIENCY
- HIGHER SIDELOBES (-17 DB, -24 DB, -28 DB BELOW 23 MW/CM² AND MORE LAND REQUIRED TO FENCE RECTENNA

- SINGLE STEP TAPER VERSUS UNIFORM (CONSTANT POWER DENSITY AT EACH LEVEL)

**ADVANTAGES FOR STEP**
- LOWER SIDELOBES (-28 DB BELOW 23 MW/CM²)
- ALL AMPLIFIERS OPERATED AT SAME POWER LEVEL

**DISADVANTAGES FOR STEP**
- LESS POWER AVAILABLE
- LARGER SPACETENNA
SIDELOBE COMPARISON
OF UNIFORM POWER DISTRIBUTION
WITH TWO EXAMPLES OF SINGLE STEP EDGE TAPER

KEY:

--- UNIFORM POWER DISTRIBUTION
--- 1/3 STEP AT EDGE
--- 1/4 STEP AT EDGE

TRANSMITTING ANTENNA

\[ P_U = \text{POWER DENSITY AT TRANSMITTING ANTENNA} \]
\[ D_u = \text{DIAMETER AT TRANSMITTING ANTENNA FOR UNIFORM POWER DISTRIBUTION} \]
\[ U = \frac{\pi D_u \sin \theta}{\lambda} \]
\[ \lambda = \text{WAVE LENGTH} \]
\[ \theta = \text{BEAM WIDTH (HALF ANGLE)} \]

RADIUS KM (FOR \( D_u = 1.95 \text{KM} \))
\[ \lambda = 0.12 \text{M} \]
\[ R = 37,000 \text{KM} \]
## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS
### SOLID STATE SANDWICH CONCEPT ISSUES AND RESOLUTION SUMMARY

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D-35
AMPLIFIER THERMAL MODEL

PG - PYROGRAPHITE (with Cu4&5)  DIA = 10 cm
Cu - COPPER RADIATOR  TC = 1.0 mm
Al - ALUMINUM RADIATOR  TT = 0.1 mm

JUNCTION TEMPERATURE = TJ ≈ TE + \frac{ΔT}{PA} PA

P_B = 100 W/m²
α = 0.05
ε = 0.8

TE(°C) = \left[\frac{P_B + \frac{PA}{A} + PS \alpha}{10^{-8} \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon} \times 0.5459}ight]^{1/4} - 492
RECTENNA SIZE VS BEAM EFFICIENCY - UNIFORM ILLUMINATION

FREE SPACE PATTERN LEVEL AT EARTH, dB

-10
-14
-18
-22
-26
-30
-34
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
2.25 KM 4.6 KM
RECTENNA RADIUS, KM

82.5% EFFICIENCY

-13.6 dB

EDGE OF RECTENNA 1 mW/CM^2

-23.6 dB

FENCE 0.1 mW/CM^2

.80 .85 .90 .95
BEAM EFFICIENCY
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<td>-</td>
<td>C1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>L2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>C4</td>
<td>R3</td>
</tr>
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<td>C7</td>
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The purpose of this investigation was to further define the solid state sandwich concept for SPS. The design effort concentrated on the spacetenna, but did include some system analysis for parametric comparison reasons. The study specifically included definition and math modeling of basic solid state microwave devices, an initial conceptual subsystems and system design, sidelobe control and system selection, an assessment of selected system concept and parametric solid state microwave power transmission system data relevant to the SPS concept. Although device efficiency was not a goal of this study, the sensitivities to design of this efficiency were parametrically treated. Sidelobe control consisted of various single step tapers, multistep tapers and Gaussian tapers. A preliminary assessment of a hybrid concept using tubes and solid state is also included. There is a considerable amount of thermal analysis provided with emphasis on sensitivities to waste heat radiator form factor, emissivity, absorptivity, amplifier efficiency, material and junction temperature.

The document is organized to provide useful design data for future studies, identify issues associated with the solid state sandwich design, and estimate technology requirements.