

driven element. Spacings are similar to those for conventional Yagis. In an experimental model the reflector was spaced  $0.25 \lambda$  and the director  $0.15 \lambda$ . A square array using four 3-element bays worked extremely well.

### VHF AND UHF QUAGIS

At higher frequencies, especially 420 MHz and above, Yagi arrays using dipole-driven elements are difficult to feed and match, unless special care is taken to keep the feed-point impedance relatively high by proper element spacing and tuning. The cubical quad described earlier overcomes the feed problems to some extent. When many parasitic elements are used, however, the loops are not nearly as convenient to assemble and tune as are straight cylindrical ones used in conventional Yagis. The *Quagi*, designed and popularized by [Wayne Overbeck, N6NB](#), is an antenna having a full-wave loop driven element and reflector, and Yagi type straight rod directors. Construction details and examples are given in the projects later in this chapter.

### COLLINEAR ANTENNAS

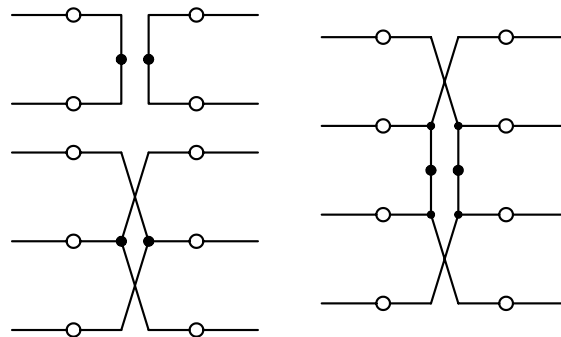
The information given earlier in this chapter pertains mainly to parasitic arrays, but the collinear array is worthy of consideration in VHF/UHF operations. This array tends to be tolerant of construction tolerances, making it easy to build and adjust for VHF applications. The use of many collinear driven elements was once popular in very large phased arrays, such as those required in moonbounce (EME) communication, but the advent of computer-optimized Yagis has changed this in recent years.

#### Large Collinear Arrays

Bidirectional curtain arrays of four, six, and eight half waves in phase are shown in **Fig 9**. Usually reflector elements are added, normally at about  $0.2 \lambda$  behind each driven element, for more gain and a unidirectional pattern. Such parasitic elements are omitted from the sketch in the interest of clarity.

The feed-point impedance of two half waves in phase is high, typically  $1000 \Omega$  or more. When they are combined in parallel and parasitic elements are added, the feed impedance is low enough for direct connection to open wire line or twin-lead, connected at the points indicated by black dots. With coaxial line and a balun, it is suggested that the universal stub match, **Fig 4A**, be used at the feed point. All elements should be mounted at their electrical centers, as indicated by open circles in **Fig 9**. The framework can be metal or insulating material. The metal supporting structure is entirely behind the plane of the reflector elements. Sheet-metal clamps can be cut from scraps of aluminum for this kind of assembly. Collinear elements of this type should be mounted at their centers (where the RF voltage is zero), rather than at their ends, where the voltage is high and insulation losses and detuning can be harmful.

Collinear arrays of 32, 48, 64 and even 128 elements can give outstanding performance. Any collinear array should be fed at the center of the system, to ensure balanced



**Fig 9—Element arrangements for 8, 12 and 16-element collinear arrays. Elements are  $\frac{1}{2} \lambda$  long and spaced  $\frac{1}{2} \lambda$ . Parasitic reflectors, omitted here for clarity, are 5% longer and  $0.2 \lambda$  behind the driven elements. Feed points are indicated by black dots. Open circles show recommended support points. The elements can run through wood or metal booms, without insulation, if supported at their centers in this way. Insulators at the element ends (points of high RF voltage) detune and unbalance the system.**

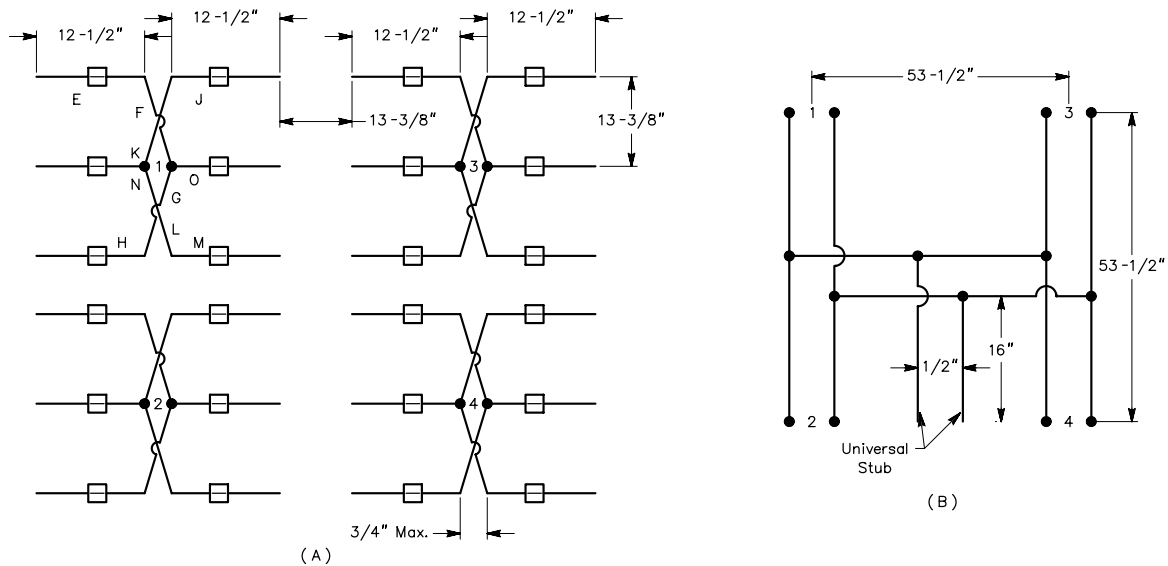
current distribution. This is very important in large arrays, where sets of six or eight driven elements are treated as “sub arrays,” and are fed through a balanced harness. The sections of the harness are resonant lengths, usually of open wire line. The 48-element collinear array for 432 MHz in **Fig 10** illustrates this principle.

A reflecting plane, which may be sheet metal, wire mesh, or even closely spaced elements of tubing or wire, can be used in place of parasitic reflectors. To be effective, the plane reflector must extend on all sides to at least  $\frac{1}{4} \lambda$  beyond the area occupied by the driven elements. The plane reflector provides high F/B ratio, a clean pattern, and somewhat more gain than parasitic elements, but large physical size limits it to use above 420 MHz. An interesting space-saving possibility lies in using a single plane reflector with elements for two different bands mounted on opposite sides. Reflector spacing from the driven element is not critical. About  $0.2 \lambda$  is common.

### THE CORNER REFLECTOR

When a single driven element is used, the reflector screen may be bent to form an angle, giving an improvement in the radiation pattern and gain. At 222 and 420 MHz its size assumes practical proportions, and at 902 MHz and higher, practical reflectors can approach ideal dimensions (very large in terms of wavelengths), resulting in more gain and sharper patterns. The corner reflector can be used at 144 MHz, though usually at much less than optimum size. For a given aperture, the corner reflector does not equal a parabola in gain, but it is simple to construct, broadbanded, and offers gains from about 10 to 15 dB, depending on the angle and size. This section was written by Paul M. Wilson, W4HHK.

The corner angle can be 90, 60 or 45°, but the side



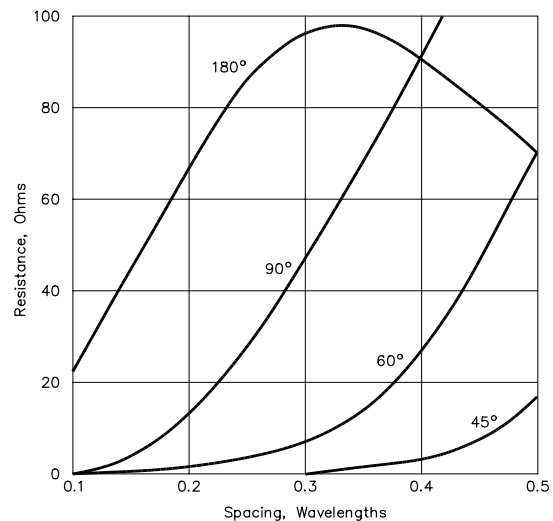
**Fig 10—Large collinear arrays should be fed as sets of no more than eight driven elements each, interconnected by phasing lines. This 48-element array for 432 MHz (A) is treated as if it were four 12-element collinear antennas. Reflector elements are omitted for clarity. The phasing harness is shown at B.**

length must be increased as the angle is narrowed. For a 90° corner, the driven element spacing can be anything from 0.25 to 0.7 λ, 0.35 to 0.75 λ for 60°, and 0.5 to 0.8 λ for 45°. In each case the gain variation over the range of spacings given is about 1.5 dB. Because the spacing is not very critical to gain, it may be varied for impedance matching purposes. Closer spacings yield lower feed-point impedances, but a folded dipole radiator could be used to raise this to a more convenient level.

Radiation resistance is shown as a function of spacing in Fig 11. The maximum gain obtained with minimum spacing is the primary mode (the one generally used at 144, 222 and 432 MHz to maintain reasonable side lengths). A 90° corner, for example, should have a minimum side length (S, Fig 12) equal to twice the dipole spacing, or 1 λ long for 0.5-λ spacing. A side length greater than 2 λ is ideal. Gain with a 60° or 90° corner reflector with 1 λ sides is about 10 dB. A 60° corner with 2 λ sides has about 12 dB gain, and a 45° corner with 3 λ sides has about 13 dB gain.

Reflector length (L, Fig 12) should be a minimum of 0.6 λ. Less than that spacing causes radiation to increase to the sides and rear, and decreases gain.

Spacing between reflector rods (G, Fig 12) should not exceed 0.06 λ for best results. A spacing of 0.06 λ results in a rear lobe that is about 6% of the forward lobe (down 12 dB). A small mesh screen or solid sheet is preferable at the higher frequencies to obtain maximum efficiency and highest F/B ratio, and to simplify construction. A spacing of 0.06 λ at 1296 MHz, for example, requires mounting reflector rods about every 1/2-inch along the sides. Rods or spines may be used to reduce wind loading. The support used for



**Fig 11—Radiation resistance of the driven element in a corner reflector array for corner angles of 180° (flat sheet), 90°, 60° and 45° as a function of spacing D, as shown in Fig 12.**

mounting the reflector rods may be of insulating or conductive material. Rods or mesh weave should be parallel to the radiator.

A suggested arrangement for a corner reflector is shown in Fig 12. The frame may be made of wood or metal, with a hinge at the corner to facilitate portable work or assembly atop a tower. A hinged corner is also useful in experimenting