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Application of Machine Learning-Assisted Global Optimization for Improvement in Design and Performance of Open Resonant Cavity Antenna

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ABSTRACT Open resonant cavity antenna (ORCA) and its recent advances promise attractive features and possible applications, although the designs reported so far are solely based on the classical electromagnetic (EM) theory and general perception of EM circuits. This work explores machine learning (ML)-assisted antenna design techniques aiming to improve and optimize its major radiation parameters over the maximum achievable operating bandwidth. A state-of-the-art method e.g., parallel surrogate model-assisted hybrid differential evolution for antenna synthesis (PSADEA) has been exercised upon a reference ORCA geometry revealing a fascinating outcome. This modifies the shape of the cavity which was not predicted by EM-based analysis as well as promising significant improvement in its radiation properties. The PSADEA-generated design has been experimentally verified indicating 3dB-11dB improvement in sidelobe level along with high broadside gain maintained above 17 dBi over the 18.5% impedance bandwidth of the ORCA. The new design has been theoretically interpreted by the theory of geometrical optics (GO). This investigation demonstrates the potential and possibilities of employing artificial intelligence (AI)-based techniques in antenna design where multiple parameters need to be adjusted simultaneously for the best possible performances.

INDEX TERMS Artificial intelligence, machine learning, high gain antenna, optimization technique, resonant cavity antenna

I. INTRODUCTION

Open resonant cavity antenna (ORCA) is a class of high-gain antenna which is becoming increasingly popular due to its attractive features and small footprint. It consists of a resonant cavity formed between a ground plane and a superstrate where a microstrip patch, dielectric resonator, radiating slot, or open-ended waveguide could be used as a primary radiator [1]–[32]. The high gain property is achieved through multiple reflections like in a Fabry-Perot cavity [12]–[22]. Instead of a partially reflective surface [1]–[27], a nontransparent superstrate was also tested successfully [28]–[32].

A recent study introduced an additional vertically erected wall and reported high gain consistently over a large bandwidth [32]. That work [32] employed geometrical optics (GO) to optimize the field confinement within the cavity and electromagnetic (EM) analysis of cavity modes. That resulted

in a specific cavity shape along with that of the superstrate structure and enlightened us about the ability enormous potential of the new ORCA geometry. However, it demands high-quality optimization of multiple parameters simultaneously to obtain the best possible performance over a wide range of frequencies. This work actually targets optimizing each design parameter and achieving the best possible or near to the best possible antenna structure. Following the present trend in science and engineering, we have explored machine learning (ML), or artificial intelligence (AI) assisted techniques more effectively.

AI-based antenna design is becoming more prevalent [33]–[34] as it provides faster optimization speed and better quality solutions compared to the conventionally available methods [33]–[34]. Nowadays, the most widely used AI-based antenna optimization methods combine evolutionary computation and supervised learning in a single framework to maximize the

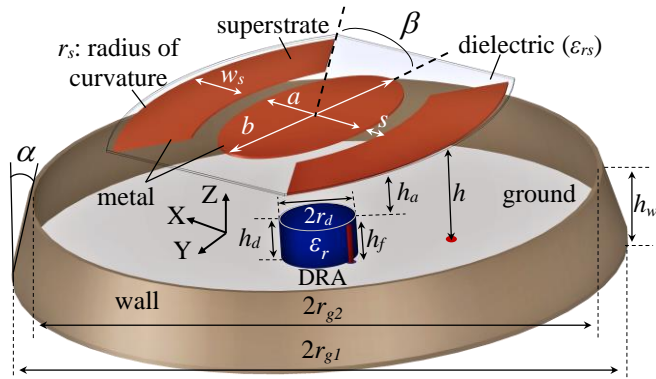


FIGURE 1. Isometric 3D view of the OCRA under PSADEA optimization. Parameters: $r_{g1} = 116$, $r_{g2} = 108$, $h_a = 37$, $h_d = r_d = 10$, $h_w = 34$, $h_f = 10$, $h = h_f + h_d$, $a = 46$, $b = 92$, $r_s = 45$, $w_s = 22$, $s = 10$, $\beta = 25^\circ$, $\epsilon_r = 10$, $\epsilon_{rs} = 2.55$. (all dimensions are in mm).

pros of both techniques [34]–[37]. Usually, the computation part of the framework is an evolutionary algorithm like differential evolution (DE) or particle swarm optimization (PSO), which explores the antenna design space. The supervised learning part is a regression technique like Gaussian process regression (or Kriging), support vector regression (SVR), and radial basis function networks (RBFN) [34]–[37]. For the antenna optimization framework, the researchers prefer methods such as PSO-SVR, DE-RBFN [38], deep learning implemented with multilayer neural networks [34], and domain knowledge-guided search [39], [40].

The present design employs the third generation of the ‘surrogate model-assisted hybrid differential evolution for antenna synthesis’ (SADEA) algorithm [41]. This is now in its fifth installment and is called ‘parallel SADEA’ or simply PSADEA [42], [43]. Its core elements are Gaussian Process (GP)-based supervised learning and evolutionary computation anchored by DE. The reason for selecting PSADEA in this work stems from its ability to successfully address a few practical antennas (even when a designer has little or no knowledge of the feasibility or realizability) such as base station antennas [44], dual-polarized folded antennas [45], reconfigurable antennas [46], substrate integrated waveguide antennas [47], and metasurface-based antennas [48]. In addition, the computational cost of PSADEA is attractive compared to [49]–[51], for example being 8 times faster than DE and PSO [43], [52]. Unlike DE and PSO, PSADEA is competently applicable to complex antenna structures [47], [53]. It may be relevant to mention that the improved efficiency of PSADEA originates from ‘surrogate model-aware evolutionary search’ (SMAS) framework (to have an optimal co-working of the global search driven by DE), and the surrogate modeling (carried out by GP) [54], and self-adaptive use of three complementary DE mutation operators (to have a better balance between the exploration and exploitation of the antenna design space) [42], [43].

TABLE 1. SEARCH RANGES OF THE DESIGN PARAMETERS AND THE OPTIMAL DESIGN BY PSADEA (ALL SIZES IN MM EXCEPT WHERE STATED OTHERWISE)

Parameters #	Initial value *	Range of variation		PSADEA-Optimum
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
r_{g1}	116	100	140	101.65
r_{g2}	108	90	150	115.84
h_w	34	10	60	40.63
h_a	37	30	45	36.69
a	46	40	55	46.44
$r_e = b/a$	2 units	1 unit	3 units	1.7 units
w_s	22	10	30	28.95
s	10	5	20	13.4
β	25 deg	20 deg	50 deg	33.16deg
r_s	45	40	50	49.82

Parameters as in Figure 1. * For reference antenna

The result of the ML-based investigation provides an improved structure with a completely new feature compared to the reference antenna [32]. The novelty of the present work lies in restructuring the cavity geometry and also in achieving significantly improved radiation properties, especially in terms of its side lobe level (SLL). These characteristics have been verified with the help of the traditional GO method and also through a series of experiments. The results indicate a fractional impedance bandwidth of 18.5% (3.55 GHz to 4.3 GHz), minimum in-band broadside gain of 17.4 dBi, and maximum in-band SLL of -17 dB. The improvement may be understood if compared with the reference ORCA showing fractional impedance bandwidth of 15.46% (3.61 GHz to 4.22 GHz), a minimum in-band broadside gain of 15.56 dBi, and a maximum in-band SLL of -8.18 dB.

II. BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVE OF THIS STUDY

This study aims to apply an optimization algorithm to our previously reported ORCA shown in Fig. 1 [32]. This embodies a probe-fed cylindrical dielectric resonator antenna (DRA) as a primary radiator loaded by a shaped superstrate, and a conical cavity wall. This multiparametric design and its interdependencies appear too sensitive to the sweeping of some of the values listed in Table I. This table furnishes a set of parameters obtained in [32] by sensitivity analysis. We found that these design parameters highly affect the antenna performance and verified experimentally. But such an experience-driven trial or tuning of parameters leading to the best possible design appears to be impractical.

An ML-driven technique, we, therefore, believe would help in reaching a relatively improved and optimized design of this reference antenna geometry (Fig. 1) and address the challenges in terms of its physical topology and electromagnetic characterization. These challenges include but are not limited to (i) unclear interdependencies and electromagnetic interactions between the ORCA’s design parameters that cannot be feasibly ascertained via design experience and parameter sweeps, (ii) maintaining a large FBW with high broadside gain and very low SLL for a

similar topology to the reference ORCA design, and (iii), maintain a similar or lower profile to the reference ORCA design.

For the present exploration, a set of design parameters and their search ranges have been chosen and shown in Table I. The goal is to optimize the same in order to maximize the fractional impedance bandwidth (FBW) over the frequency range of 3.5 GHz to 4.3 GHz, with ≤ -10 dB in-band return loss, subject to a minimum in-band broadside gain (G_{broad}) of 16 dBi or higher, and a maximum allowable in-band SLL of -14 dB or lower.

III. DESIGN OBTAINED USING MACHINE LEARNING-ASSISTED GLOBAL OPTIMIZATION

Several numerical methods that can be employed for local or global optimization of antennas are available in the literature [52]. Typically, in a simulation-driven optimization used for electromagnetic structure, an adequate initial design geometry identified a priori is required as an anchor or starting point for local optimizers. AI plays an important role in the present perspective of advanced machine learning-assisted global optimization procedures.

A. BACKGROUND OF OPTIMIZATION: TECHNIQUES AND STUDIES

In contrast to local optimization methods, global optimization methods for antennas do not involve any initial or starting configuration. However, they usually demand a large, sometimes unaffordable, number of full-wave EM simulations [55]. For the proposed ORCA structure, it costs about 20 minutes on average to complete a full-wave EM simulation and a typical run using a global optimization may last for 8 to 12 weeks without any guarantee of useful outcomes. Hence, conventional local and *global* optimization methods are not the right fit for the targeted goal.

In the last decade or so, AI techniques, specifically, machine learning (ML) have been introduced extensively into the optimization frameworks of standard global numerical optimization methods for antenna design, especially evolutionary algorithms (EAs). They were reported to reduce the overall computational cost [35]–[37], [39]. The most popular approach is surrogate model-based optimization. The surrogate models are also referred to as metamodels and are constructed using ML techniques. They are computationally cheap and can approximate the antenna behavior replacing the expensive feature of optimization in the commercial full-wave simulators. Nowadays, several ML-assisted antenna optimization methods are available [39], [56]–[60]. However, many of them are not very generic, are reliant on many ad-hoc processes, or have limitations on the number of design variables, or the range for surrogate modeling and search. Therefore, a more generic AI-based method ‘PSADEA’ has been employed whose main elements and workflow are elaborately discussed in [42], [43]. In the PSADEA-driven optimization of the proposed ORCA, the goal is the minimization of the fitness function F_{ORCA} , taking the specifications for G_{broad} , SLL , and FBW into account.

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B. PSADEA-DRIVEN DESIGN OF THE PROPOSED ORCA

A GP-based surrogate model in PSADEA works as follows [42], [43]: given a set of antenna design geometry ($x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$) and EM simulation results ($y = [y_1, \dots, y_n]$), to predict the performances ($y = f(x)$) for a candidate design x , $y(x)$ is modeled as a Gaussian distributed stochastic variable with a mean of μ and a variance of σ^2 . If $y(x)$ is continuous, the function values ($y(x_p)$ and $y(x_q)$) of any two candidate designs such as x_p and x_q can be expected to be close if they have a high correlation. To derive the correlation, a Gaussian correlation is used as follows:

$$Corr(x_p, x_q) = e^{-\sum_{t=1}^d r_t |x_p^t - x_q^t|^{\xi_t}} \quad (1)$$

for $r_t > 0, 1 \leq \xi_t \leq 2$

where the dimension of x is d and r_t (correlation parameter) evaluates how quickly the decorrelation occurs as x_a moves in the t direction. ξ_t relative to x^t accounts for the smoothness of the function. Maximization of the likelihood function that $y = y^i$ at $x = x^i (i = 1, \dots, n)$ is used to derive r_t and t . Hence, for a candidate design (x^{**}), the prediction of the performance ($y(x^{**})$) is:

$$\hat{y}(x^{**}) = \hat{\mu} + m^T M^{-1}(y - Z\hat{\mu}) \quad (2)$$

where

$$M_{p,q} = Corr(x_p, x_q), p, q = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (3)$$

$$h = [Corr(x^{**}, x_1), Corr(x^{**}, x_2), \dots, Corr(x^{**}, x_n)] \quad (4)$$

$$\hat{\mu} = (Z^T M^{-1} Z)^{-1} (Z^T M^{-1} y) \quad (5)$$

The mean squared error associated with the prediction uncertainty is:

$$MSE = \hat{\sigma}^2 [Z - m^T M^{-1} m + (Z - m^T M^{-1} m)^2 (Z^T M^{-1} Z)^{-1}] \quad (6)$$

where

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = (y - Z\hat{\mu})^T M^{-1} (y - Z\hat{\mu}) n^{-1} \quad (7)$$

GP modeling has a computational complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n_{iteration}, K^3, d)$, where $n_{iteration}$ and K are the number of iterations completed in the optimization of the hyperparameter and the available training data points, respectively [61].

Several prescreening methods are available for assessing the quality of a candidate design for the predicted value in (2) and the prediction uncertainty in (6) [61]. The lower confidence bound (LCB) method [62], is used in PSADEA. Such that if the predictive distribution of $y(x)$ is $N(\hat{y}(x), MSE)$ then the LCB prescreening of $y(x)$ is:

$$\hat{y}(x) - \omega \sqrt{MSE} \quad (8)$$

where ω is a constant that is usually set to two to balance exploitation and exploration [61].

The DE-based search in PSADEA works as follows [63]: given that P_{ORCA} is the design population for the ORCA optimization such $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a set of parametric values for a candidate ORCA design, to produce, C , a child solution for x , mutation first occurs using three complementary DE mutation operators (DE/best/1, DE/current-to-best/1, and DE/rand/2, in (9), (10) and (11), respectively [63]) self-adaptively:

$$v^i = x^{best} + F \cdot (x^{r1} - x^{r2}) \quad (9)$$

$$v^i = x^i + F \cdot (x^{best} - x^i) + F \cdot (x^{r1} - x^{r2}) \quad (10)$$

$$v^i = x^{r1} + F \cdot (x^{r2} - x^{r3}) + F \cdot (x^{r4} - x^{r5}) \quad (11)$$

where v^i is the i th mutant vector, x^{best} is the best candidate solution in the current population P_{ORCA} , $F \in (0, 2]$ is a control parameter, often called the scaling factor, $x^{r1}, x^{r2}, x^{r3}, x^{r4}$, and x^{r5} randomly selected mutually exclusive solutions from P_{ORCA} .

Then crossover takes place as follows to generate C , the child solution:

- 1) Randomly select a variable index $j^{rand} \in \{1, \dots, d\}$,
- 2) For each $j = 1$ to d , generate a uniformly distributed random number $rand$ from $(0, 1)$ and set:

$$C_j = \begin{cases} v_j & \text{if } (rand \leq C_R) | j = j^{rand} \\ x_j & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

where $C_R \in [0, 1]$ is the crossover rate (a constant).

The PSADEA-driven optimization flow diagram is shown in Fig. 2, and the steps are summarized as follows:

Step 1: 50 design solutions are sampled from the ORCA's design space using the Latin hypercube sampling (LHS) method [64]. These designs are then simulated to obtain their performances to create an initial database.

Step 2: If a predetermined stopping criterion, e.g., the maximum number of EM simulations is met, PSADEA outputs the best design solution from the database. Otherwise, Step 3 is carried out.

Step 3: Select τ top-ranked design solutions from the database.

Step 4: Generate child solutions by applying the DE mutation operators in (9), (10), and (11), self-adaptively to the design solutions selected in Step 3.

Step 5: For every candidate in each of the child populations, from the database, GP-based surrogate models are constructed using the nearest designs (determined using Euclidean distance) and their performance values as the training data.

Step 6: To handle prediction uncertainty, the generated child solutions from Step 4 are prescreened using the surrogate models from Step 5 and the LCB method [62]. The three best design solutions are then selected based on the LCB values.

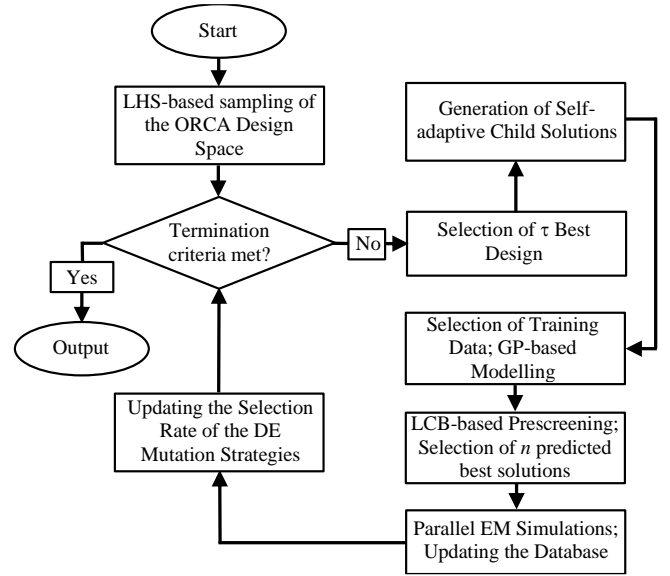


FIGURE 2. Flow diagram of PSADEA.

Step 7: The selected best solutions are simulated in parallel, and their simulation results are added to the database.

More details about the PSADEA workflow can be found in [42], [43]. PSADEA may be applied to most of the common antenna geometry but with a limitation when the number of design parameters is very high, e.g., >50 . The reason behind this is increased training time for GP [61]. The present case of targeted ORCA embodies 10 design parameters, which are comfortably handled by this PSADEA.

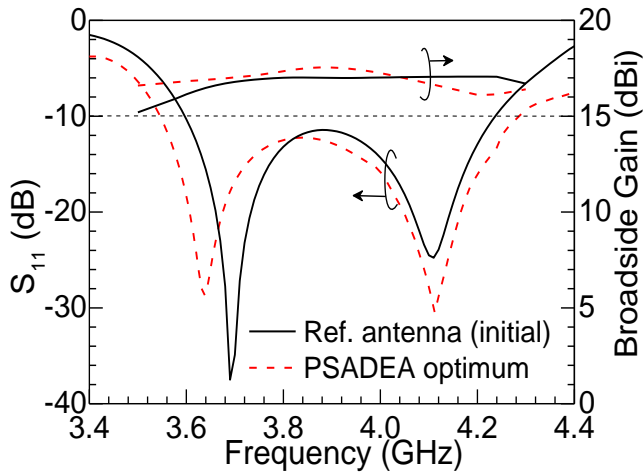
In this PSADEA-driven optimization, the goal is the minimization of the fitness function, F_{ORCA} , stated as follows:

$$F_{ORCA} = -FBW + w \{ \max([14 \text{ dBi} - G_{broad}, 0]) + \max([SLL + 14 \text{ dB}, 0]) \} \quad (13)$$

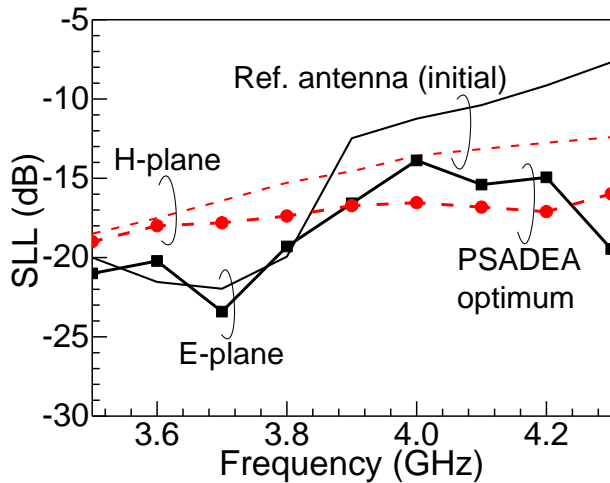
where w is the penalty coefficient set to 50 to preferentially ensure that the specifications for G_{broad} and SLL are focused on first in the optimization process by penalizing F_{ORCA} heavily if they are violated. Then the optimization run focuses on the maximization of FBW immediately after the specifications for G_{broad} and SLL have been satisfied. All other optimization settings are the default settings in [42] and [43]. The geometry, electromagnetic characterization, and physical implementation of this ML-assisted AI-driven design are discussed below.

C. OPTIMIZED RESULTS AND NEW CONFIGURATION

For the optimization run, the antenna model was built and discretized in CST-MWS [55] using a total of about 7,250,000 hexahedral cells having a mesh density of 15 mesh cells per wavelength. Each cycle costs about 20 min (from a wall clock) on average on a workstation with an Intel eight-core i9-9900K 3.6 GHz CPU and 32 GB RAM. After 1095 full-wave EM simulations, PSADEA obtained a design that



(a)



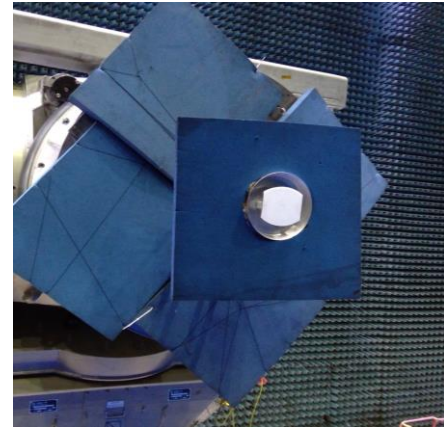
(b)

FIGURE 3. Comparison of the reference antenna with the PSDAEA-optimized OCRA over the frequency band for their: (a) S_{11} and boresight gain, (b) E- and H-plane SLL. Parameters as in Table I.

showed a satisfactory performance (meeting both G_{real} and SLL specifications and having an FBW of 15.6% (3.55 GHz to 4.15 GHz). It then converged after 2771 full-wave EM simulations to produce the design (PSADEA-Optimum) reported in Table I having an FBW of 19.1% (3.54 GHz to 4.29 GHz), G_{broad} of 17.5 dBi, and SLL of -15.62 dB. Note that PSDAEA does not follow a one-shot sampling method. Instead, the samples are obtained self-adaptively using the machine learning technique [42], [43].

Table I shows the optimized parameters obtained using PSDAEA. This shows some changes in the optimized values compared to the reference antenna, and one parameter appears drastically different from the reference design and that is the configuration of the cavity wall. The PSDAEA-optimized geometry proposes a vertical wall to be inclined outward which is in contrast with the reference antenna conceived and analyzed earlier with an opposite inclination

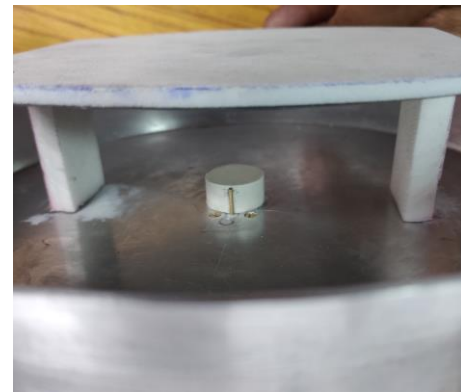
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(a)



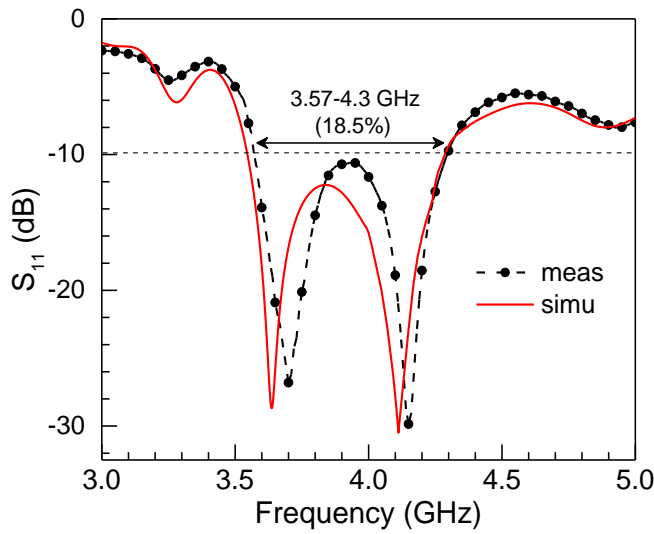
(b)



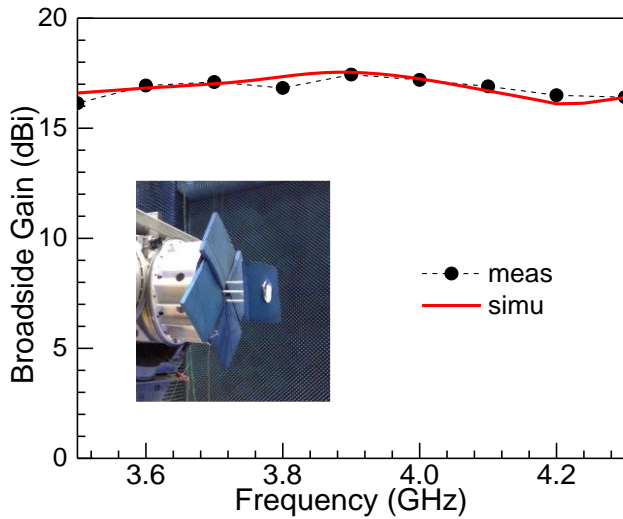
(c)

FIGURE 4. Fabricated antenna prototypes and experimental setup. (a) Setup for radiation pattern measurement, (b) top view of the fabricated antenna prototype, (c) perspective view of the antenna prototype. All parameters are as in PSDAEA-optimium values in Table I.

of the vertical wall. This results in $rg_2 > rg_1$ with $\alpha \rightarrow -ve$ (reference antenna [32]: $rg_2 < rg_1$ with $\alpha \rightarrow +ve$). The impact of the significant change in the PSDAEA-based design with



(a)



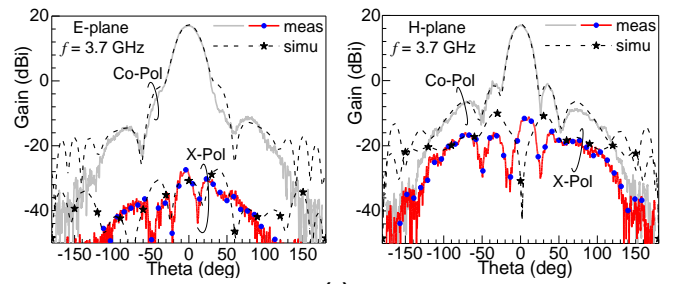
(b)

FIGURE 5. Measured S_{11} and gain variation as a function of frequency and compared with the simulated prediction: (a) S_{11} , (b) boresight gain. All parameters as in Fig. 1 and Table I.

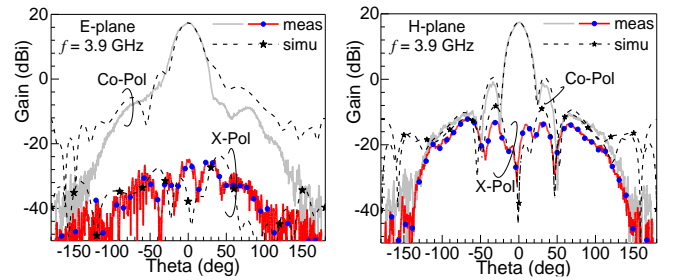
respect to the reference configuration has been thoroughly examined in Fig. 3. The S_{11} and gain characteristics compared in Fig. 3(a) appear mutually comparable or with very little variation. But a significant improvement in SLL value is revealed in Fig. 3(b), which is more predominant near the higher frequencies, over both E- and H-planes. The predicted improvement of SLL is about 6dB over the E-plane and 5dB over the H-plane.

IV. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

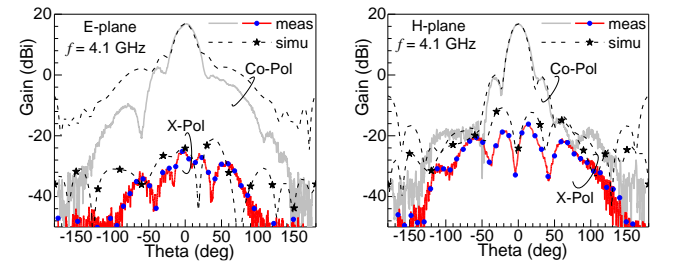
A set of prototypes and associated measurement setups are shown in Fig. 4. The metallic cavity structure is made of a thin aluminum sheet and a cylindrical DRA is machined from Emerson Cuming's HiK $\epsilon_r=10$ material. The superstrate geometry is etched from a Taconic TLX $\epsilon_r=2.55$ substrate. It is symmetrically placed with the support of a pair of



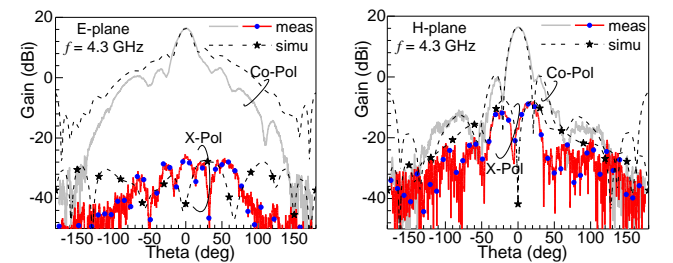
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

FIGURE 6. E- and H-plane radiation patterns at (a) 3.7 GHz, (b) 3.9 GHz, (c) 4.1 GHz, and (d) 4.3 GHz. Parameters as in Fig. 1 and Table I.

Rohacell foam spacers (Fig. 4(c)). The measurements are conducted using Agilent's E8363B network analyzer and an automated anechoic chamber.

The measured S_{11} characteristics of the prototype, depicted in Fig. 5(a) ensure the predicted operating band from 3.57 GHz to 4.3 GHz. Fig. 5(b) depicts measured gain over the entire band. The excellent mutual agreement bears the signature of the authenticity of the PSADEA prediction. The detailed radiation characteristics are studied in Fig. 6 at four different frequencies with equal intervals over the entire bandwidth. The experimental set-up and the large fixture holding the antenna under test restricted our measurement beyond 150° of azimuth. Even then, the measured co-polar

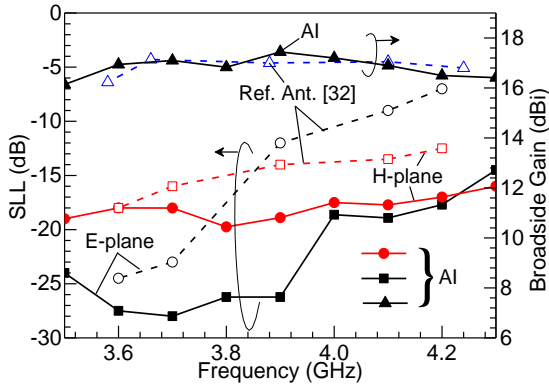
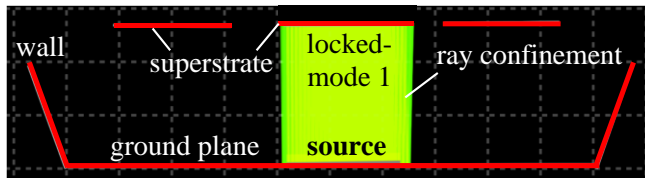
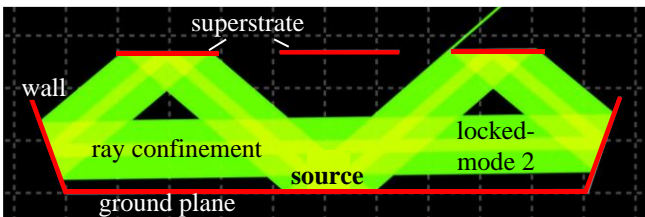


FIGURE 7. Measured E- and H-plane SLL values compared with reference antenna. All parameters as in Fig. 1 and Table I.



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 8. Demonstration of energy confinement due to the possible locked-modes in OCRA with inclined cavity wall and superstrate due to: (a) conventional Fabry-Perot cavity (locked-mode-1), (b) tilted cavity wall (locked-mode-2). Results are obtained by using GO based simulator [66].

values around 150° reveal a related mismatch with the simulated curve. However, the overall comparison between measurements and AI-based prediction is quite satisfactory. The measured data finally establish the superiority of the AI-based design as examined in Fig. 7. The aim of the design, as stated above, was to optimize the antenna geometry based on the best possible radiation i.e., lowest SLL and optimum antenna gain without compromising the operating bandwidth. Fig. 7 ensures no sacrifice in gain with respect to the reference antenna but with a remarkable improvement in SLL. In the E-plane, the relative improvement is prominent on the higher side of the spectrum, varying from 3dB–11dB with the mid-band improvement of 14 dB. The H-plane feature is found to be improved by 5 dB throughout the spectrum, except on the lower edge of the operating band. Typically, 93-95% radiation efficiency has been confirmed near both resonances based on experimental investigations.

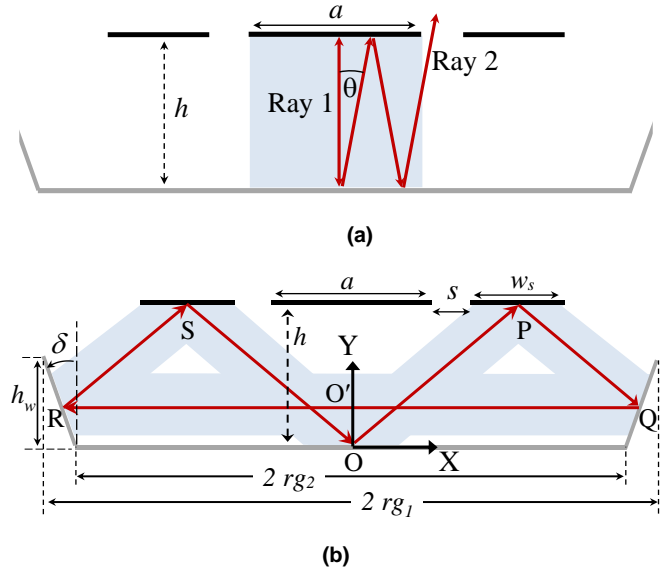


FIGURE 9. Schematic representation of the locked-modes due to: (a) conventional Fabry-Perot cavity (locked-mode-1), (b) tilted cavity wall (locked-mode-2).

This followed the method in [65] using the Wheelers Cap technique.

V. AI-DRIVEN DESIGN INTERPRETED BY GEOMETRICAL OPTICS

The promising improvements in radiation, especially in the SLL characteristics, as discussed in the previous section, are caused by the PSADEA-obtained new ORCA geometry. Here, we have tried to justify the same using classical geometrical optics (GO) based analysis [32]. A robust physical insight, justifying the PSADEA-obtained structure has also been developed.

We understand that the high gain feature of a Fabry-Perot or resonant cavity antenna is caused by multiple reflection and field confinement mechanisms. The same occurring in the PSADEA-obtained structure confinement has been investigated using a GO simulation tool [66]. Fig. 8 reveals the study indicating two locked modes. Mode 1 (Fig. 8(a)) is straightforward like a traditional Fabry-Perot cavity where the cavity wall plays no role. Locked mode 2 (Fig. 8(b)) is observed here for the first time and this is caused by the new (AI-driven) shape of the cavity wall. Locked modes-1 and -2 are schematically represented in Figs. 9(a) and (b) respectively. Ray1 with incident angle $\theta \approx 0$ experiences an infinite number of reflections and hence ensures the fullest confinement, represented by the shaded region. Its related resonance condition is straightforward and already discussed in [32]. But mode-2 is completely new to us and its resonance condition reveals some interesting features as discussed below.

The total round-trip phase shift of the rays shown in Fig. 9(b) is

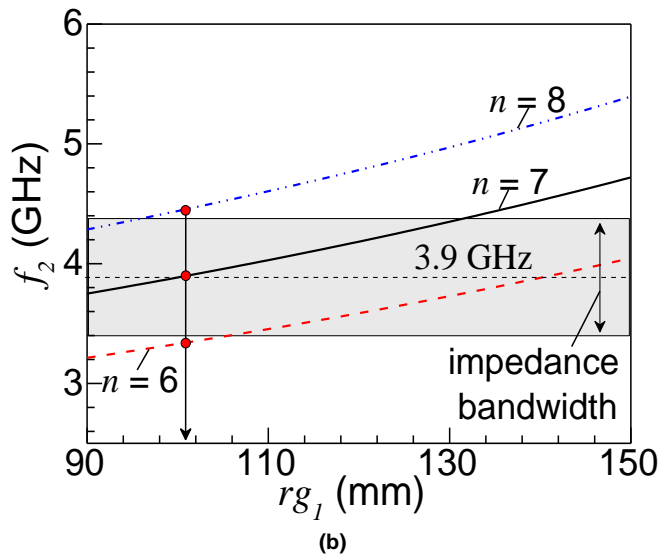
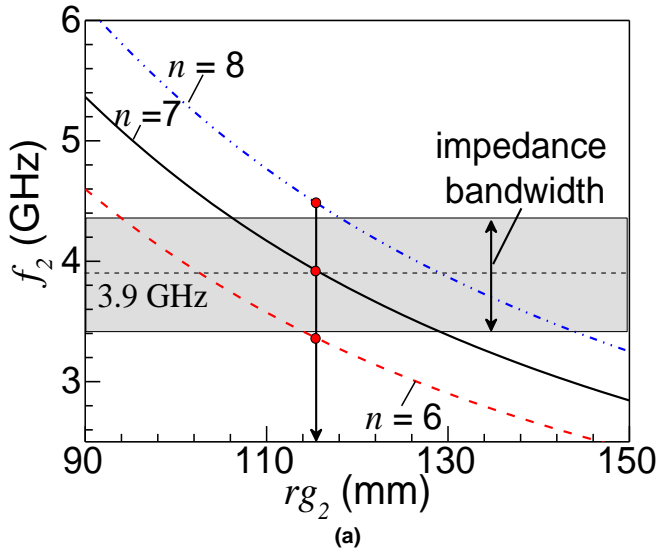


FIGURE 10. Theoretical estimation of cavity wall dimensions by using proposed GO based analysis that plots resonance frequency (f_2) of locked mode-2 for $n=6, 7$, and 8 . (a) f_2 vs rg_2 , (b) f_2 vs rg_1 . All other parameters are as in PSADEA-optimum values in Table I.

$$OPQRSO (2\pi/\lambda_2)=2n\pi \quad (14)$$

with

$$OPQRSO = \sqrt{(a + 2s + w_s)^2 + (2h)^2} + \sqrt{(3rg_2 - rg_1)^2} + \sqrt{(2h - h_w)^2 + (3rg_2 - rg_1 - a - 2s - w_s)^2} \quad (15)$$

The above derivation demands a few steps: $OPQRSO = 2OPQO' = 2(OP+PQ+QO')$; with coordinates: $O(0,0)$; $P(a/2+s+w_s/2, h)$; $Q(rg_2+(rg_2-rg_1)/2, h_w/2)$; $O'(0, h_w/2)$. Here, Q and R represent the midpoint of the cavity configuration. The parameters obtained by the AI-driven method [42] are shown in Table I and they yield

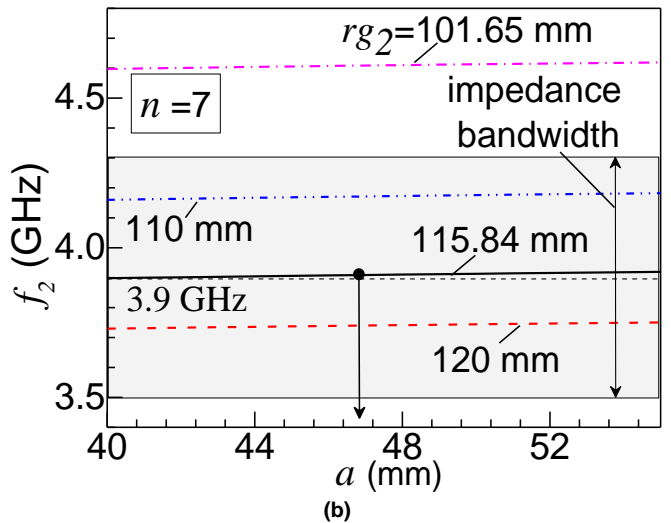
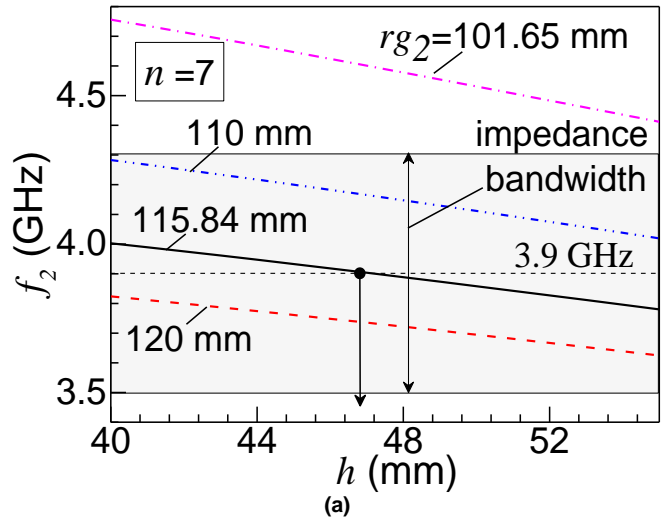


FIGURE 11. Theoretical estimation of superstrate height (h) and size (a) by using proposed GO based analysis that plots resonance frequency (f_2) of locked mode-2 for different antenna parameters at $n=7$: (a) f_2 vs h for different rg_2 values, (b) f_2 vs a for different rg_2 values. All other parameters are as in PSADEA-optimum values in Table I.

$$f_2 = nc/OPQRSO \cong 0.56 n \text{ (in GHz)} \quad (16)$$

where f_2 is the predicted resonance frequencies as a function of integer n , and c is the velocity of light in free space. Based on Table I, the possible f_2 values are 3.36GHz, 3.92GHz, and 4.48GHz with $n = 6, 7$, and 8 , respectively, which fall within the range of our design frequencies.

An interesting study has been executed in Figs. 10 and 11 which portrays the theoretical variation of f_2 as a function of some sensitive dimensions. In Fig. 10(a), the targeted operating frequency band is marked as a shaded region. The optimum rg_2 that predicts a maximum coverage (with $n=6, 7, 8$) appears to be 115.5 mm and this value exactly matches with the AI-based prediction $rg_2 = 115.84\text{mm}$. A similar

TABLE 2. PRESENT AI-DRIVEN DESIGN COMPARED WITH PREVIOUS CONVENTIONAL STRUCTURES

Ref.	Antenna Size	Operating Band	Superstrate	Primary Radiator	Cavity Wall	design used GO	Use of AI/ML	BW (%)	Gain (dBi)	SLL (dB)	
										E-plane	H-plane
[7]	$2.4\lambda \times 2.4\lambda \times 0.6\lambda$	X	FSS	Patch	No	×	×	22.5	7–14	–12	–10
[67]	$2\lambda \times 2\lambda \times 0.5\lambda$	V	dielectric	Patch	No	×	×	6.7	8–14.6	–8	–12
[68]	$8\lambda \times 8\lambda$	Ka	metal grid	waveguide	No	×	×	10	10–16	–12	–20
[69]	$8\lambda \times 8\lambda \times 1.6\lambda$	V	ring PRS	SIW-feed	No	×	×	17.8	17–21	–10	–12
[70]	$6\lambda \times 6\lambda \times 2.2\lambda$	X	dielectric/slab-sheet	Patch	No	×	×	12.7	10–20	–14	–22
[30]	$2.5\lambda \times 2.5\lambda \times 0.5\lambda$	S	printed metal film (engineered)	DRA	No	×	×	19	8–13	–10 to –5	–28 to –6
[32]	$2.8\lambda \times 2.8\lambda \times 0.5\lambda$	S	printed metal film (engineered)	DRA	Yes, flared inward	√	×	18	16.9–17.2	–25 to –7	–18 to –3
Present	$2.8\lambda \times 2.8\lambda \times 0.5\lambda$	S	printed metal film (engineered)	DRA	Yes, flared outward	√	√	18.5	16.9–17.4	–28 to –18	–20 to –17

examination has been executed in Fig.10(b) for rg_I and the theoretical prediction of optimum $rg_I=101$ mm closely corroborates AI-based value $rg_I=101.65$ mm. The studies in Figs. 11(a) and (b) are equally interesting. They theoretically find out the best possible h and a values corresponding to the mid-band frequency which show excellent agreement with PSADEA obtained values (Table I). The GO-based analysis and the theoretical predictions completely justify the PSADEA algorithm obtained data and give more light on the actual physical insight behind that. It would be relevant to note that, in many cases, scientists failed to physically justify the AI-predicted data. But in our case, a physical insight has been successfully demonstrated.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study provides us with two-fold benefits. One is the earning of confidence in applying AI-assisted optimization in designing a complex antenna bearing multiple dimensions and geometrical variations. The second one is more important which provides a significant improvement in realizing an open resonant cavity antenna geometry. The reported result may be claimed as the best or nearly the best possible one. Comparison Table II endorses the claim. The previous reports embody traditional analysis/simulation-based designs. The present effort employing ML helps in noticeably improving the radiation properties as evident from the four rightmost columns.

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