Feasibility of a Plasma-Based Intelligent Reflective Surface

MIRKO MAGAROTTO, LUCA SCHENATO, (Member, IEEE), PAOLA DE CARLO, AND ANTONIO-DANIELE CAPOBIANCO, (Member, IEEE)

1Department of Industrial Engineering, University of Padova, 35131 Padova, Italy
2National Research Council, 35127 Padova, Italy
3National Inter-University Consortium for Telecommunications, CNIT, 43124 Parma, Italy
4Technology for Propulsion and Innovation S.P.A., 35121 Padova, Italy
5Department of Information Engineering, University of Padova, 35131 Padova, Italy

Corresponding author: Mirko Magarotto (mirko.magarotto@unipd.it)

ABSTRACT  Gaseous Plasma Antennas are devices in which an ionized gas (i.e., plasma) is exploited to transmit and receive Electromagnetic waves. Their main advantage over metallic systems is the possibility to reconfigure the antenna performance (e.g., radiation pattern) by electronically varying the plasma parameters (e.g., density). Recently, Intelligent Reflecting Surfaces (IRSs) have been proposed to control the environment between transmitting and receiving antennas manipulating the signals reflected. In this work, the feasibility of a plasma-based IRS is investigated. A theoretical model has been developed to assess the use of plasma as a reflecting medium. Numerical simulations have been performed to preliminary design plasma-based IRSs. Two designs of IRSs, relying on plasma properties consistent with the technology at the state-of-the-art, are proposed. The former enables beam steering operations depending on the continuous control of the phase of the reflected wave. The latter exploits a 1-Bit coding strategy to produce specific diffraction patterns. The main advantage of a plasma-based IRS with respect to the metallic counterpart is the possibility to control the phase of the reflected wave, maintaining the magnitude of the reflection coefficient close to the unit. The main drawback of plasma-based systems is the necessity of using thick plasma elements (in the order of the wavelength in the air) to control the phase of the reflected wave over 360 deg. This constraint can be relaxed if digital plasma elements are adopted.

INDEX TERMS  Gaseous plasma antennas, intelligent reflective surfaces, reconfigurable antennas.

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in a new class of antennas that exploit an ionized gas, namely plasma, to transmit and receive Electromagnetic (EM) waves. These devices are called Gaseous Plasma Antennas (GPAs) [1]. GPAs present several advantages with respect to conventional metallic antennas, providing the possibility to control the EM response of the plasma electronically [2]. First, the plasma is produced by energizing a neutral gas confined inside a dedicated vessel. Namely, when a GPA is off, it is characterized by a reduced Radar Cross Section (RCS) given the absence of the main conductive medium (i.e., plasma) [3]. This feature reduces the mutual interference between antennas stacked into arrays [4]. Moreover, the capability to electrically “disappear” is very appealing if stealth is required [5]. Second, the figures of merit of a GPA (e.g., operation frequency and radiation pattern) can be reconfigured by controlling the electric power used to sustain the plasma. The latter determines the plasma density and temperature, which, in turn, drives the EM response [6]. Third, plasma is a dispersive medium; namely, co-site interference levels can be minimized for GPAs operated at different frequencies [7].

Several architectures have been proposed to exploit the capabilities of GPAs. Borg et al. [8] realized a monopole antenna operated in the 3–150 MHz frequency range relying on a surface wave-driven discharge. Anderson et al. [1] proposed a GPA working in the 0.5–20 GHz frequency range in which the plasma is sustained in DC or pulsed-DC mode. De Carlo et al. [9] realized a plasma dipole
operated in the Ultra High Frequency (UHF) range relying on custom-build Cold Cathode Fluorescence Lamps (CCFL). Numerical designs of both transmit-arrays [10], [11], Yagi-Uda antennas [12], and plasma panels [13] envisioned the use of passive plasma discharges as signal directors. Passive plasma discharges are also employed to realize reflect-arrays. Melazzi et al. [14] built a reflect-array for satellite-based radio navigation (i.e., Galileo frequency range 1.164–1.592 GHz). The prototype comprises a metallic dipole surrounded by a set of CCFLs capable of beam-forming operations by electronically switching on and off the plasma discharges. Similarly, CCFLs have been used by Jusoh et al. [15] to realize a corner reflector antenna fed by a monopole device operated at 2.4 GHz, with a maximum gain 10.8 dBi and based on a similar beam-forming mechanism. Zainud-Deen et al. [16] proposed a numerical design of a reflect-array in which plasma cells can be used to control the phase of the reflected wave. In this way, the authors achieved beam steering operations by tuning the plasma properties of each cell, namely adjusting the electrical feeding power.

The advent of commercial 5G and the forthcoming next-generation communications have boosted academia [17] and industry’s interest [18] in developing novel technologies to accommodate different communication protocols and handle adverse channel conditions. Among these technologies, Intelligent Reflecting Surfaces (IRSs), also known as Reconfigurable Intelligent Surfaces, are engineered, programmable planar structures capable of controlling the scattering and reflection of radio signals by tuning the EM properties of the surface [19], [20], [21], either implemented by phased arrays or metasurfaces [22]. Specifically, a metasurface is a planar array consisting of a large number of digitally controllable elements called meta-atoms [23], [24]. IRSs change the paradigm that the medium between the transmitter and the receiver antennas is a random entity. Indeed, introducing an IRS into the environment makes it possible to control the phase, amplitude, polarization, and even the frequency of the reflected signals [25]. Thus the propagation environment is upgraded into an entity that can be programmed and optimized, i.e., the smart radio environment [26], [27]. The key feature of IRSs, namely the passive and tunable reflected signal transformation, is usually achieved by integrating active elements (e.g., PIN or varactor diodes) in the unit cells that constitute the surfaces. Each unit cell can independently change the amplitude and phase of the impinging signal to produce a reflecting fine beam shaping synergically. Additionally, IRSs allow the reuse of ambient signals for communications instead of creating new ones, enabling low-power communications and reducing EM pollution. In this sense, IRSs break new ground to mitigate the detrimental effect of the surrounding medium and respond to the need for higher data rates and energy efficiency in 5G and emerging 6G technologies.

The present study explores the feasibility of plasma-based IRSs. This concept is worth investigating, provided the plasma’s capability to act as a reflector and the possibility to control the phase of the reflected wave by varying the plasma density electronically [16]. Using a plasma panel to accomplish beam steering operations is not new [16]. Nonetheless, this study introduces relevant advances to the state-of-the-art. First and differently from previous works [16], the proposed design relies on realistic plasma properties. The assumed values of plasma density, electron temperature, and neutral gas pressure are coherent with the experimental data available in the literature of GPAs [4]. Specifically, for each configuration proposed dedicated experimental works have been referenced to demonstrate the feasibility of the design. Therefore, the results discussed in the following are more robust with respect to previous works in which aspirational plasma properties have been assumed [28] (e.g., inconsistent plasma density and neutral pressure). Second, we derive quantitative design rules valid for a generic plasma panel operated as a reflector. This result improves the state-of-the-art since past configurations address only peculiar architectures (e.g., the incident wave produced by a horn antenna [16]). Specifically, a simplified theoretical model has been developed to assess the use of plasma as a reflecting medium.

Eventually, the remainder part of this paper is organized as follows. Section II discusses the adopted theoretical-numerical methodology. Section III and Section IV present the derivation of the quantitative design rules and the numerical design of two plasma-based IRSs, respectively. Finally, Section V draws the conclusions and discusses the next steps toward realizing a plasma-based IRS.

II. METHODOLOGY

A theoretical model has been developed to assess the use of plasma as a reflecting medium, and numerical simulations are performed to preliminary design plasma-based IRSs. In both cases, the EM response of the plasma, namely its capability to control the phase of the reflected wave, is described via the relative permittivity $\varepsilon_r$. The latter is derived according to the cold plasma model [29]. The motion of the ions has been neglected provided the frequencies of interest are in the GHz range [29]. Namely, $\varepsilon_r$ reads:

$$
\varepsilon_r = 1 - \frac{\omega_p^2}{\omega^2 + v^2} + j \frac{v}{\omega} \frac{\omega_p^2}{\omega^2 + v^2} \tag{1}
$$

where $\omega$ is the wave angular frequency in rad/s, $\omega_p$ is the plasma frequency in rad/s, $v$ is the collision frequency in Hz, and $j$ is the imaginary unit. The plasma frequency is given

![FIGURE 1. Schematic of the plasma element analysed with the theoretical model.](image-url)
where \( q \) is the elementary charge, \( m \) is the electron mass, \( \varepsilon_0 \) is the vacuum permittivity, and \( n_e \) is the plasma density in \( m^{-3} \). Specifically, \( n_e \) and, in turn, \( \omega_p \) depend on the electric power to sustain the plasma [6], namely they are the parameters used to control electronically \( \varepsilon_r \) and the phase of the reflected wave. The collision frequency is determined by the electron-neutral elastic scattering reaction, which is the most relevant dissipation mechanism for usual GPAs [4], [30]. Its expression follows [31]

\[
v = n_0 K(T_e)
\] (3)

where \( n_0 \) is the density of neutral particles in \( m^{-3} \), and \( K \) is a rate constant that depends on the electron temperature \( T_e \), as [31]:

\[
K = 2.336 \times 10^{-14} T_e^{1.609} \times \exp \left( 0.0618 (\ln T_e)^2 - 0.1711 (\ln T_e)^3 \right)
\] (4)

where \( T_e \) is expressed in eV. It is worth defining three additional parameters to provide a complete description of the plasma. First, the neutral pressure \( p_0 \), whose expression reads [31]:

\[
p_0 = k_B T_0 n_0
\] (5)

where \( k_B \) is the Boltzmann constant, and \( T_0 \) is the neutral gas temperature in K. Second, the plasma impedance

\[
Z_{pl} = \frac{Z_0}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_r}}
\] (6)

where \( Z_0 = \sqrt{\mu_0 / \varepsilon_0} \) is the impedance of free space, and \( \mu_0 \) is the vacuum permeability. Third, the critical density \( n_e^{cr} \), which reads [31]:

\[
n_e^{cr} = \frac{m e_0}{q} \left( \frac{2\pi f}{q} \right)^2
\] (7)

where \( f = \omega / 2\pi \) is the wave frequency in Hz. The parameter \( n_e^{cr} \) indicates the plasma density for which \( \omega = \omega_p \). For \( n_e \lesssim n_e^{cr} \) waves can propagate in plasma since \( \text{Re}(\varepsilon_r) > 0 \). For \( n_e \gtrsim n_e^{cr} \) only evanescent waves occur within plasma being \( \text{Re}(\varepsilon_r) < 0 \) [29]. From now on, the condition \( n_e \lesssim n_e^{cr} \) is referred to as the dielectric regime and \( n_e \gtrsim n_e^{cr} \) as the conductor regime. Equivalently, the dielectric regime occurs for \( f \lesssim \omega_p / 2\pi \), and the conductor ones for \( f \gtrsim \omega_p / 2\pi \).

A. THEORETICAL MODEL

A simplified theoretical model has been developed to assess the use of plasma as a reflector. A schematic of the considered setup is depicted in Fig. 1. A homogeneous plasma slab of thickness \( z_{pl} \), located on top of an infinite Perfect Electric Conductor (PEC) constituting the ground plane [16], is orthogonally impinged by a linearly polarized plane wave.

The reflected wave is described via the complex reflection coefficient \( \Gamma \) defined as

\[
\Gamma = \frac{E_p}{E_i}
\] (8)

where \( E_p \) and \( E_i \) are the reflected and incident electric field, respectively. According to the conventional transmission line model [32], \( \Gamma \) reads

\[
\Gamma = \frac{\rho + \Gamma_{pl}}{1 + \rho \Gamma_{pl}}
\] (9)

where \( \rho \) is the Fresnel’s reflection coefficient at the air-plasma interface, and \( \Gamma_{pl} \) is the reflection coefficient within the plasma medium. Specifically, \( \Gamma_{pl} \) reads

\[
\Gamma_{pl} = -\exp \left( j 4\pi \sqrt{\varepsilon_r} \frac{z_{pl}}{\lambda} \right)
\] (10)

where \( \lambda = c / f \) is the wavelength in air, and \( \rho \) reads

\[
\rho = \frac{Z_{pl} - Z_0}{Z_{pl} + Z_0} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{\varepsilon_r}}{1 + \sqrt{\varepsilon_r}}
\] (11)

B. NUMERICAL MODEL

Numerical analyses have been accomplished with the commercial software CST microwave Studio®. The schematic of a plasma element is reported in Fig. 2. A plasma element of thickness \( z_{pl} \) and width \( L_{pl} \) is placed on top of a PEC ground plane whose side has dimension \( L \), which represents the lattice periodicity. The computational domain has been discretized on an unstructured tetrahedral mesh and Maxwell’s equations integrated in the frequency domain. An incident plane wave propagating along the \( z \) direction is assumed to impact normally the plasma elements. Two types of simulations have been performed: (i) single element analysis to compute the reflection coefficient \( \Gamma \), and (ii) array analysis to evaluate the radiation pattern scattered by the plasma panel. The single element analysis is accomplished assuming Floquet boundary conditions along the \( x \) and \( y \) directions; an open condition is assumed along \( z \) [33]. Instead, open boundary conditions have been adopted to compute the RCS of the IRS.
II. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

The theoretical model has been: (i) verified against numerical results and (ii) exploited to derive quantitative design rules for the plasma element.

A. VERIFICATION

To verify the reliability of the theoretical model, its results have been compared against a numerical benchmark. The working frequency is assumed equal to \( f = 10 \text{ GHz} \) [34], the thickness of the plasma slab is \( z_{pl} = \lambda = 30 \text{ mm} \). The values selected for the plasma parameters are consistent with measures performed on actual GPA prototypes [4], [35]. The neutral density is equal to \( n_0 = 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-3} \), namely \( p_0 = 0.4 \text{ mbar} \) [35]. The electron temperature is equal to \( T_e = 1.2 \text{ eV} \) [4], namely \( \nu = 3.1 \times 10^8 \text{ Hz} \). The plasma density (i.e., the parameter that allows to tune the wave reflection electronically) is varied from \( 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-3} \) up to \( 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3} \) [5], thus theoretical and numerical results are cross-checked in a broad operative range. Consistently, \( \omega_p \) varies from \( 5.6 \times 10^9 \text{ rad/s} \) up to \( 1.8 \times 10^{11} \text{ rad/s} \). Numerical simulations of a single plasma element are performed assuming \( L_{pl} = L \), following the theoretical model assumptions. Provided the imposed Floquet boundary conditions, the numerical results are not dependent on the value of \( L \) nonetheless the assumption \( L = \lambda / 2 = 15 \text{ mm} \) has been made. An excellent agreement between theoretical and numerical results is obtained (see Fig. 3): differences are lower than 1% in terms of both the amplitude and phase of \( \Gamma \).

B. PLASMA ELEMENT ANALYSIS

The theoretical model has been exploited to evaluate the sensitivity of \( \Gamma \) to \( n_e \) and \( z_{pl} \) (see Fig. 4). To account for realistic operative conditions, \( p_0 = 0.4 \text{ mbar} \) and \( \nu = 3.1 \times 10^8 \text{ Hz} \) have been assumed [35]. Notably, \( |\Gamma| > -1 \text{ dB} \) regardless
of the values of \( n_e \) and \( z_{pl} \); the minimum value is registered for \( n_e \approx n_e^o \), its magnitude decreases with \( z_{pl} \). The span in which the phase of \( \Gamma \) can be controlled varies \( n_e \) (i.e., electronically) depends on \( z_{pl} \); a reconfigurability over 360 deg is physically achievable for \( z_{pl} > \lambda/2 \).

Result in terms of \(|\Gamma|\) can be interpreted considering that Im(\( \varepsilon_r \)) increases with \( \omega p \) (see Eq. 1), namely, Ohmic losses grow with \( n_e \) [29]. Nonetheless, in the dielectric regime (Re(\( \varepsilon_r \)) > 0) EM waves propagate within the plasma, while in the conductor regime (Re(\( \varepsilon_r \)) < 0) the incident wave is almost completely reflected at the air-plasma interface. In other words, a significant mismatching between \( Z_{pl} \) and the impedance of the free space occurs for \( n_e \ll n_e^o \): \( Z_{pl} \) tends to the infinity for \( n_e = n_e^o \) and it is mostly imaginary in the conductor regime. As a result, the condition \( n_e \approx n_e^o \) is critical since the incident wave, before being reflected, propagates in a medium where non-negligible Ohmic losses occur. Moreover, the thicker the plasma slab, the higher the total power dissipated within the lossy medium (see Eq. 11).

For what the phase of \( \Gamma \) is concerned, it tends to \(-180\) deg for \( n_e > 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3} \) since the plasma behaves as a good conductor (i.e., poor matching between \( Z_{pl} \) and \( Z_0 \)). On the other hand, when \( n_e \rightarrow 0 \) (i.e., \( Z_{pl} \approx Z_0 \)), the value of \( \text{ang}(\Gamma) \) depends only on the distance \( z_{pl} \) between the ground plane, where the incident wave is reflected, and the edge of the plasma cell. As a result, \( z_{pl} = \lambda/2 \) is the threshold distance to control the phase over 360 deg provided that for \( n_e = 0 \) the incident wave is reflected in the ground plane, while for \( n_e \gg 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3} \) it is reflected in the edge of the plasma cell. The larger \( z_{pl} \), the smaller the maximum value of \( n_e \) required to reconfigure the phase over 360 deg. Namely, \( z_{pl} = \lambda/2 \) is a physical threshold to control the phase over 360 deg. However, considering the plasma production technology at the state-of-the-art [4], the condition \( z_{pl} \approx \lambda \) is a more realistic lower bound.

From a technological standpoint, realizing a plasma-based IRS is feasible since plasma allows full control of the phase of the reflected wave while ensuring \( |\Gamma| \) close to the unit. The latter is a remarkable advantage over classical solutions [33] where \( |\Gamma| \) usually drops in correspondence of \( \text{ang}(\Gamma) = 0 \) [34]. In unit cells based on PIN diodes, varactor diodes, or MEMS switches, \( |\Gamma| \) can be up to 6 dB lower with respect to plasma-based systems (see Table 1). On the other hand, plasma elements shall be relatively thicker than classical unit cells to guarantee a sufficient control of the phase: in the order of \( \lambda \) instead of 0.10–0.30 \( \lambda \). Nevertheless, suppose the intended application can be accomplished by relying on digital elements [41], [42], namely controlling the phase only in a discrete range of values (say 180 deg). In that case, the constraint on the plasma thickness can be relaxed (see Section IV).

### IV. NUMERICAL ANALYSIS

The numerical model described in Section II has been exploited to define the preliminary design of plasma-based IRSs. First, the behaviour of a plasma element has been assessed by accounting for practical constraints (e.g., \( L_{pl} \neq L \)). Second, the design of two IRSs is proposed. The former exploits thick plasma elements (\( z_{pl} = \lambda \)) to accomplish beam steering operations via a continuous control of the phase. The latter relies on digital plasma elements whose thickness is \( z_{pl} \approx \lambda/3 \) to produce specific diffraction patterns.

#### A. PLASMA ELEMENT DESIGN

The condition \( L_{pl} = L \) is hardly met in practice since additional equipment is required to confine and ignite the plasma

| Technology          | Min. \(|\Gamma|\) [dB] | Thickness [mm] | \( f \) [GHz] |
|---------------------|----------------------|----------------|--------------|
| Plasma              | -1                   | 10 – 30        | 10           |
| PIN diode [36]      | -5                   | 7              | 9.4 – 11.4   |
| PIN diode [37]      | -6                   | 3              | 32.5 – 40.5  |
| Varactor diode [38] | -7                   | 6              | 11.0 – 12.0  |
| Varactor diode [39] | -4                   | 5              | 5.3 – 5.5    |
| MEMS switchers [40] | -6                   | 3              | 9.4 – 11.4   |

TABLE 1. Comparison between plasma-based elements and other unit cells adopted in IRSs.
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(e.g., vessels that contain neutral gas and electrodes) [43]. Therefore, the theoretical configuration $L_{pl} = L$ has been compared against a plasma element where $L_{pl} = L/\sqrt{2}$ (see Fig. 5) [16]. The operation frequency is $f = 10$ GHz [34], namely $L = \lambda/2 = 15$ mm and $z_{pl} = \lambda = 30$ mm. The former condition guarantees a periodicity of the plasma elements that avoids grating lobes [44]. The latter assumption on $z_{pl}$ is intended to guarantee a 360 deg control of the phase relying on affordable plasma density values. Plasma parameters are selected according to the usual operative conditions of GPAs [35]; $p_0 = 0.4$ mbar and $v = 3.1 \times 10^8$ Hz. Regardless of the value of $L_{pl}/L$, similar trends are obtained in terms of both the magnitude and phase of $\Gamma$. The most relevant difference is that the value of $n_e$ required to control the phase over 360 deg is higher for $L_{pl} = L/\sqrt{2}$: $n_e = 1.4 \times 10^{18}$ m$^{-3}$ instead of $n_e = 0.9 \times 10^{18}$ m$^{-3}$. This is not a major issue since such a value of $n_e$ is compatible with the plasma production technology at the state-of-the-art [35].

The configuration $L_{pl} = L/\sqrt{2}$ has been further analysed in Fig. 6 to evaluate the response of the plasma element in a frequency range from 8 GHz up to 12 GHz, namely $\pm 2$ GHz with respect to the central frequency $f = 10$ GHz. The condition $|\Gamma| > 1$ dB is maintained within the range of interest. At the central frequency $\text{ang}(\Gamma) = -13$ deg, the phase of $\Gamma$ spans from -90 deg up to 90 deg in an interval larger than 1 GHz. Namely, these plasma elements present a bandwidth several times larger than many classical systems where it spans $0.1–0.2$ GHz [34], [45].

B. IRS - CONTINUOUS PHASE SHIFT

The plasma element described in Section IV-A, has been exploited to design an IRS in which $n_e$ and, in turn, the phase of $\Gamma$ can be controlled continuously to enable beam steering operations. An IRS made of $10 \times 10$ plasma elements constitutes the design (see Fig. 7) [16]. The operation frequency is $f = 10$ GHz, and the element periodicity has been chosen as $L = \lambda/2 = 15$ mm to avoid grating lobes [44]. Specifically, $n_e$ has been varied column by column to steer the beam along the direction $\theta_{max} = -10$ deg on the $x$–$z$ plane.
Properties of the digital plasma elements that constitute the array. Numbering (θ) refers to the columns of the array.

| Column | \(n_e [m^{-3}]\) | \(\omega_p [rad/s]\) | \(|\Gamma| [dB]\) | \(\text{ang}(\Gamma) [deg]\) |
|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1, 2, 5, 6, 9, 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 57 |
| 3, 4, 7, 8 | \(7.3 \times 10^{18}\) | \(1.5 \times 10^{13}\) | \(-0.27\) | \(-133\) |

(broadside in correspondence of \(\theta = 0\)). The properties of the plasma elements, sorted by column, are reported in Table 2. In addition, the array factor rule has been adopted to design the plasma panel, with \(n_e\) tuned to impose a constant phase shift \(\beta\) between the elements of each column. Precisely, the phase shift \(\beta\) reads [44]

\[
\beta = \frac{2\pi L}{\lambda} \sin \theta_{\text{max}} = -31 \text{ deg.} \tag{12}
\]

This methodology allows for designing of an IRS that perfectly matches the requirement in terms of \(\theta_{\text{max}}\) (see Fig 8). It is worth noting that the RCS has been computed for both a collisional and a collisionless plasma. Specifically, power losses are neglected in the collisionless case since \(\nu = 0\) and therefore \(|\Gamma| = 0\ dB\). Vice versa, they are accounted for a collisional plasma where \(\nu = 3.1 \times 10^8\ \text{Hz}\) and, in turn, \(|\Gamma| \neq 0\ dB\) (see Table 2). Very comparable results are obtained for the two cases (differences \(< 0.1\ dB\ m^2\) ), confirming that negligible power losses occur within a plasma cell that exploits realistic plasma properties [35].

C. IRS - DIGITAL ELEMENTS

A plasma-based IRS has been designed relying on digital elements, and, to prove the feasibility of this concept, a 1-Bit coding implementation is investigated. Two states characterize each plasma element, “on” and “off,” respectively, that present a phase difference of about 180 deg [42], [46], [47]. The parameters of this IRS follow: operation frequency \(f = 10\ \text{GHz}\), lattice periodicity, \(L = \lambda/2 = 15\ \text{mm}\), plasma element width, \(L_{\text{pl}} = L/\sqrt{2}\), and thickness, \(z_{\text{pl}} = \lambda/3 = 10\ \text{mm}\). This design employs a relatively thin plasma cell since there is no need to control the phase over 360 deg. Indeed, the value \(z_{\text{pl}} = \lambda/3\) is a trade-off between compactness and achievable plasma properties. Provided that a plasma density in the order of \(n_e \approx 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}\) is required for this application (see Fig. 4), the neutral pressure is assumed to be \(p_0 = 2\ \text{mbar}\), and \(\nu = 1.6 \times 10^9\ \text{Hz}\) [5], [9]. In fact, according to experimental evidence [4] and theoretical prediction [6], in usual GPAs higher values of \(n_e\) are achievable increasing \(p_0\). Again, a structure of \(10 \times 10\) plasma elements constitutes the proposed IRS (see Fig. 9). The “on”–“off” state of each column has been controlled to achieve \(|\theta_{\text{max}}| = 30\ \text{deg}\); the assumed plasma properties are reported in Table 3. The fulfillment of the requirement imposed on \(\theta_{\text{max}}\) is demonstrated in Fig. 10 where the obtained RCS is depicted. Specifically, \(n_e = 7.3 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-3}\) is required for the “on” state, which is a value fully compatible with the technology at the state-of-the-art [5], [9]. Provided that neutral pressure is higher with respect to the cases analysed in previous sections (i.e., higher losses might occur within plasma [6]), the RCS computed assuming \(\nu = 0\) has been depicted in Fig. 10. The results are very comparable with the collisional case (differences \(< 0.2\ dB\ m^2\)) consistently with a value of \(|\Gamma|\) close to the unit for the plasma elements adopted in this design (see Table 3).

It is worth noting that plasma-based IRSs relying on multi-Bits elements are feasible but have not been analysed in this work for the sake of brevity. Specifically, multi-Bits designs present a better power efficiency with respect to 1-Bit implementations [48] but require thicker plasma cells. For example, \(z_{\text{pl}} = \lambda/2\) may be sufficient to guarantee a 2-Bit phase resolution where the four states need to encompass a phase increment of 90 deg. The latter concept is particularly appealing for high gain IRS targeted at massive multiple-input multiple-output applications [45].
V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK
A feasibility study has been accomplished to assess the use of plasma to realize IRSs. To this end, a theoretical model has been developed to analyse the single plasma element, and numerical simulations have been performed to design the plasma panel. The main advantage of a plasma-based IRS, with respect to classical devices [34], is the possibility to control the phase of the reflected wave while maintaining the magnitude of the reflection coefficient close to the unit. Namely, the Ohmic losses are negligible, even assuming plasma properties achievable with the technology at the state-of-the-art [9]. The need for thick plasma elements (comparable to the wavelength in air, \( \lambda \)) to control the phase of the reflected wave over 360 deg represents the main drawback of such technology. Nonetheless, this constraint can be relaxed if one is interested in a smaller tunability range, such as for digital IRSs. In this work, for example, a 1-Bit digital IRS with a thickness of \( \lambda/3 \) has been demonstrated. All these features show that plasma-based IRSs are a feasible and appealing technology worth further investigation.

Although the assumed plasma properties are compatible with the state-of-the-art technology [4], a few challenges must be faced to prove the proposed technology’s concept. First, the electronics for plasma production shall be optimized and miniaturized since the hardware employed to generate the plasma in GPAs is usually bulky [4], [9]. A similar problem has been solved in the frame of space propulsion, where the electronics for plasma production are miniaturized to be compatible with the CubeSat standards [49], [50]. Second, proper electrodes shall be designed to trigger the plasma production minimizing their EM interference with the propagating waves. Third, an “intelligent” control system shall be implemented to trigger the plasma discharge. Remarkably, the last two tasks have been partially solved in the field of plasma display panels for the miniaturization of the plasma production system and the control of multiple elements [43]. Therefore, the consolidated know-how in the fields of plasma antennas, space propulsion, and plasma panel display panels shall be exploited to realize a proof of concept of a plasma-based IRS. The required level of interdisciplinarity is comparable with other applications involving plasma technology (e.g., plasma medicine) [51], thus plasma-based IRSs can be considered feasible.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the miniaturization of both the plasma elements and the related electronics is a topical subject nowadays, provided the large interest in millimeter waves [34] and 5G–6G communications [18].

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MIRKO MAGAROTTO received the M.Eng. degree in aerospace engineering and the Ph.D. degree in science technology and measurements for space from the University of Padova, Padova, Italy, in 2015 and 2019, respectively. He is currently a Research Fellow with the University of Padova, where he is a member of the Space Propulsion Group. His current research interests include plasma numerical simulation, plasma antennas, and electric plasma propulsion.

LUCA SCHENATO (Member, IEEE) received the B.Sc. degree in telecommunication engineering and the Ph.D. degree in electronic and telecommunication engineering from the University of Padova, Padova, Italy, in 2003 and 2007, respectively. He is currently a Researcher at the Italian National Research Council in Padova. His current research interests include optical fiber sensors, optical fiber-based devices, and intelligent reflective surfaces.

PAOLA DE CARLO received the M.Eng. degree in aerospace engineering and the Ph.D. degree in science technology and measurements for space from the University of Padova, in 2014 and 2018, respectively. She was a postdoctoral fellow for four years. She is currently a Project Engineer with Technology for Propulsion and Innovation S.P.A., where she works on plasma space propulsion. Her main research interests include plasma antenna and plasma sources for telecommunications.

ANTONIO-DANIELE CAPOBIANCO (Member, IEEE) received the B.Sc. degree in electronic engineering and the Ph.D. degree in electronic and telecommunication engineering from the University of Padova, Padova, Italy, in 1989 and 1994, respectively. He is currently an Associate Professor with the Department of Information Engineering, University of Padova. His current research interests include theory and numerical modeling in the fields of photonics, plasmonics, and microwave antennas.