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METHOD OF MOMENTS APPLICATIONS.
VOLUME I - AN INTRODUCTION TO THE METHOD
OF MOMENTS

A. T. Adams

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20. ABSTRACT (continued)

This first volume serves the purpose of an introduction to the Method of Moments Applications Series. The basis of the method of moments is outlined and the notation and conventions used throughout the series are introduced. Illustrative examples are presented.

The following volumes of the series have been completed at this time; several other volumes are in preparation:

- Volume I - An Introduction to the Method of Moments
- Volume II - Near Fields of Thin-Wire Antennas
- Volume III - Thin Wire Analysis Program (TWAP) User Manual
- Volume IV - Feedline Interference with Dipole Performance-Theory and Experiment
- Volume V - Thin-Wire Antenna Analysis Computer Codes Compared with Measured Data
- Volume VI - Matrix Methods for Static Microstrip Problems
- Volume VII - Internal Syracuse University Memoranda
- Volume VIII - Aperture Coupling Through Long Slots
- Volume IX - Near and Far Field Thin-Wire Coupling

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METHOD OF MOMENTS APPLICATIONS

Volume I
An Introduction to the
Method of Moments

A.T. Adams

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FOREWORD

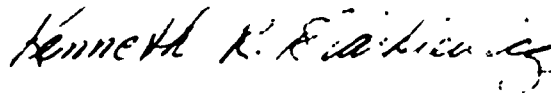
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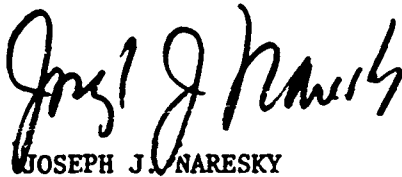
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ABSTRACT

This report is the first volume of the RADC Method of Moments Applications Series. The volumes of this series deal with the application of the method of moments [1]-[2] to various practical problems such as antenna coupling, near field prediction, aperture coupling, feedline interference, etc. These problems are of particular interest to antenna system designers and those in the area of electromagnetic compatibility [3]-[4]. There is an emphasis in the Applications Series upon experimental verification of effects noted and cross checking of results.

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VOLUME 5 - THIN-WIRE ANTENNA ANALYSIS COMPUTER CODES COMPARED WITH MEASURED DATA

VOLUME 6 - MATRIX METHODS FOR STATIC MICROSTRIP PROBLEMS

VOLUME 7 - INTERNAL SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY MEMORANDA

VOLUME 8 - APERTURE COUPLING THROUGH LONG SLOTS

VOLUME 9 - NEAR AND FAR FIELD THIN-WIRE COUPLING

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I - THE BASIS OF THE METHOD OF MOMENTS

1.1 INTRODUCTION

There have been several dramatic shifts in the direction of technical fields over the last few decades. This is especially true of the field of electromagnetic theory and its application to radiation and scattering problems. During the last few decades, this field has evolved continuously from one based solidly on the classical theory, but applicable to a narrow range of problems, to one based on the classical theory, but formulated in terms suitable to the computer age and applicable to a wide variety of practical problems.

Electromagnetic problems can be formulated in two alternative ways either as (1) a partial differential equation with boundary conditions, or as (2) an integral equation. During the 1930's and 1940's, emphasis was placed upon the corresponding classical methods of separation of variables and the classical integral equation solutions. A high degree of ingenuity was used to apply these classical methods to practical problems. However, only a narrow range of problems could be treated by these methods. In the method of separation of variables only geometries which coincided with the separable coordinate systems could be treated. One often had to drastically modify a practical problem in order to fit it to a separable geometry. Some of the separable systems were extremely complex mathematically. It is not an exaggeration to say that in some cases years of experience were required for an engineer to effectively utilize a particular coordinate system. However, considering the techniques available, the only practical

approach was to push these limited methods to their utmost, and this was done most effectively during the decades of the 1930's and 1940's.

For the practicing engineer, the classical methods were not, for the most part, completely within his grasp; and furthermore, his problems were much too complex to be reduced to the simple mathematical forms which could be handled by the classical methods. As a result, he had recourse to a "bag of tricks" developed over the years for each particular area of application. In other words, there was a severe "gap" between the simple applications of the classical methods used by researchers and the complex applications confronting the practicing engineer.

During the 1940's and 1950's the gap was closed somewhat by the advent of the variational techniques which were applied first to waveguide and then to radiation problems. Restrictions on the geometry were partially removed. Variational expressions could be found for a wide variety of quantities of interest. However, the evaluation of these expressions was often quite difficult because of the multiple integrals involved.

During the decades of the 1960's and 1970's a new method has emerged which is capable of treating a wide variety of problems. This is the method of moments as outlined by Harrington [1], [2]. This method has proven especially useful because of its wide applicability. The method is conceptually simple, although the detailed methodology may be quite complex. In each case, the defining integral equation is replaced with a matrix equation. The matrix equation may then be solved by any one of a number of techniques, such as matrix inversion.

In the method of moments, prior knowledge of the induced source distribution (charge distribution for static problems and current distribution for

time-varying problems) is not required, and, as a result, complex structures can be treated almost as easily as simple ones. The structure of the antenna or scatterer may be very complex, but the basic method does not change.

Methods of matrix inversion for the solution of problems in electromagnetic theory date back almost a century to Maxwell [5] who used such a method to calculate approximate values of capacitance, and who called the technique "the method of subareas". In the 1950's, Reitan and Higgins [6]-[10] applied the same method to a number of capacitance problems. In the early 1960's, several investigators [11]-[38] applied the method to time-harmonic radiation, scattering and waveguide problems. Harrington [1], [2] unified the subject material and gave it the name "the method of moments".

In the late 1960's and early 1970's there has been a tremendous outpouring of literature on the subject of moment methods. The methods have been applied to an extremely wide variety of problems in electromagnetic theory, including thin-wire radiation and scattering problems, scattering from dielectrics, analysis of waveguides of arbitrary cross section, discontinuity problems in waveguides and microstrip, analysis of lossy structures, propagation over an inhomogeneous earth, antenna beam pattern synthesis, analysis of near fields, analysis of radiation and scattering from bodies of revolution and bodies of arbitrary shape, etc. Many of these were problems which could not be adequately treated heretofore.

The literature on the method of moments is already so large as to preclude a comprehensive bibliography. References [39]-[115] include a partial bibliography of the work done at Syracuse University. Short courses in the method of moments have been offered at the University of Mississippi [116],[117],

the University of Illinois [118], Ohio State University [119], UCLA [120], the University of Naples [121] and the University of Trondheim [122]. The course notes from the University of Illinois are now available in book form [123].

The method of moments permits us to model problems realistically. The boundary conditions are imposed directly and the matrix inversion procedure yields the current distribution which fits the boundary conditions imposed. The principal advantages of the moment methods are flexibility, completeness, accuracy and conceptual simplicity. Arbitrary radiation shapes and arbitrary excitation and loading are permitted. Currents are not assumed but are computed and all mutuals are taken into account. The moment methods have proven to be highly accurate for a wide variety of problems associated with radiation and scattering from thin wires. Since the methods are simple in concept, they are accessible to persons with a wide variety of backgrounds. The principal limitation of the method of moments is associated with the number of unknowns (n). Problems of moderate size ($n \approx 200$ or 300) may be readily treated, but significantly larger systems cannot be adequately treated at present, due to computer core and CPU requirements.

Clearly, the method of moments has taken the antenna/electromagnetic communities by storm. For the first time, we can treat problems "as they exist", with realistic modeling of actual structures. For the first time, we have a single method, capable of being applied to the full range of electromagnetic problems, and capable of being simplified or extended according to requirements of accuracy.

1.2 THE METHOD OF MOMENTS FOR PARALLEL STRAIGHT THIN-WIRE RADIATORS AND SCATTERERS

1.2.1 GENERAL FORMULATION

In this section the method of moments is introduced for the case of parallel straight thin-wire radiators. Fig. 1-1a shows a collection of N straight, parallel, z -directed antennas, excited at arbitrary locations by ideal voltage generators at radian frequency ω . First it is desired to compute the current distributions on the antennas. Then, once the unknown currents are determined, other parameters of interest, such as impedances, far fields, near fields, etc. may be determined by further calculation. The currents are, of course, affected by interactions (mutuals) among the various radiators and these must be taken fully into account.

Fig. 1-1b shows a dipole antenna of length l and radius a , with surface currents J_z (longitudinal current), J_ϕ (azimuthal current) and J_ρ (radial current). In the general radiation or scattering problem the three components of current are all present. Furthermore J_z and J_ϕ vary with both z and ϕ and J_ρ varies with ρ and ϕ . For thin-wire radiators ($l \gg a$ and $a \ll \lambda$), circumferential (J_ϕ) and radial (J_ρ) currents may be neglected, the azimuthal variations of J_z may be neglected, and the surface current J_z may be replaced with a filamentary model (Fig. 1-1c). The justification of these simplifying assumptions is discussed in Appendix A. It should be noted that the boundary conditions are applied at finite radius " a " so that the finite thickness of the dipole may be taken into account. The voltage source is replaced with an equivalent current source (filament) in the gap region. These foregoing

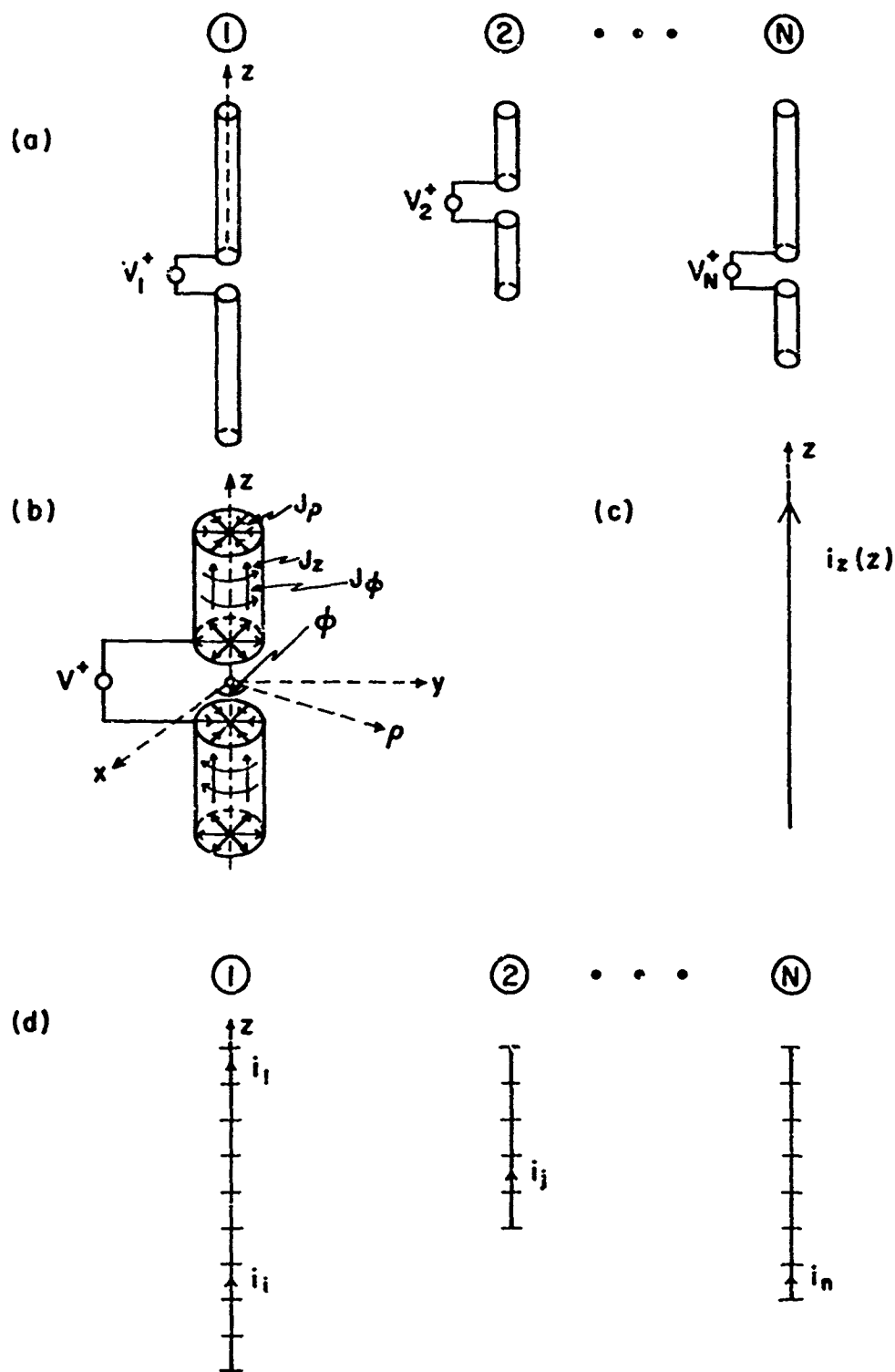


Figure 1-1 Thin-wire Antennas

- (a) A collection of straight, parallel, thin wire antennas
- (b) Fat dipole model
- (c) Filamentary model
- (d) Filamentary, subsectioned model of antennas in 1-la

simplifying assumptions are used throughout this volume.

The rigorous treatment of fat dipoles is considerably more complex. The isolated fat dipole as a radiator or scatterer may be treated by the body-of-revolution methods outlined by Mautz and Harrington [79], [93], [96], [97], [100]. Recently that method has been extended to permit the treatment of parallel fat dipoles [24] as well as the general problem of parallel bodies of revolution.

Thus, the thin-wire antennas of Fig. 1-1a may be represented as filaments, as shown in Fig. 1-1d. The antennas are divided into subsections. The current is unknown, but it is assumed in this section that it is constant over each electrically small subsection. The current on a typical subsection is represented by i_i where i_i is a complex number. Fig. 1-2 shows typical subsections Δl_i and Δl_j , with currents i_i and i_j , voltages v_i and v_j , tangential electric fields E_{zi} and E_{zj} , midpoints $i(x_i, y_i, z_i)$ and $j(x_j, y_j, z_j)$, endpoints $i \pm$ and $j \pm$, and with current, voltage, and electric field polarities as indicated.

In general the unknown filamentary current may be designated as $i(l)$ where l is a coordinate spanning the filaments. The current $i(l)$ may be expressed in terms of arbitrary expansion functions as follows:

$$i(l) = \sum_{j=1}^n i_j f_j(l) \quad (1-1)$$

where i_j are unknown complex numbers and f_j are known expansion functions. Typical expansion functions and typical resultant current representations are shown in Fig. 1-3. For purposes of this section the f_j are chosen as pulse functions:

$$f_j(l) = p_j(l) \quad 7 \quad (1-2)$$

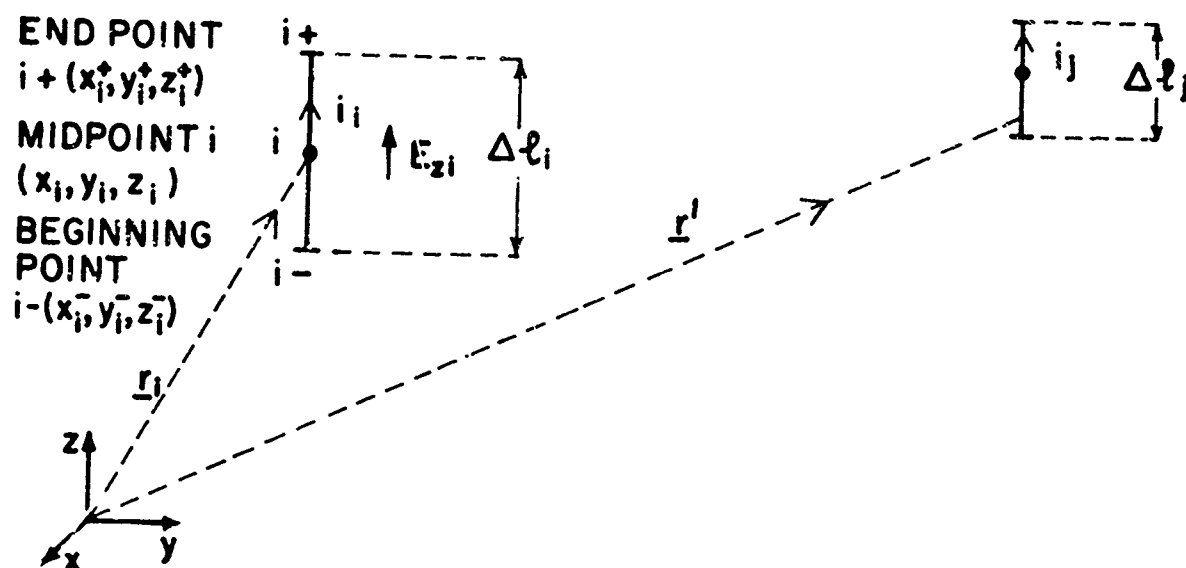


Figure 1-2 Typical subsections of the thin-wire model.

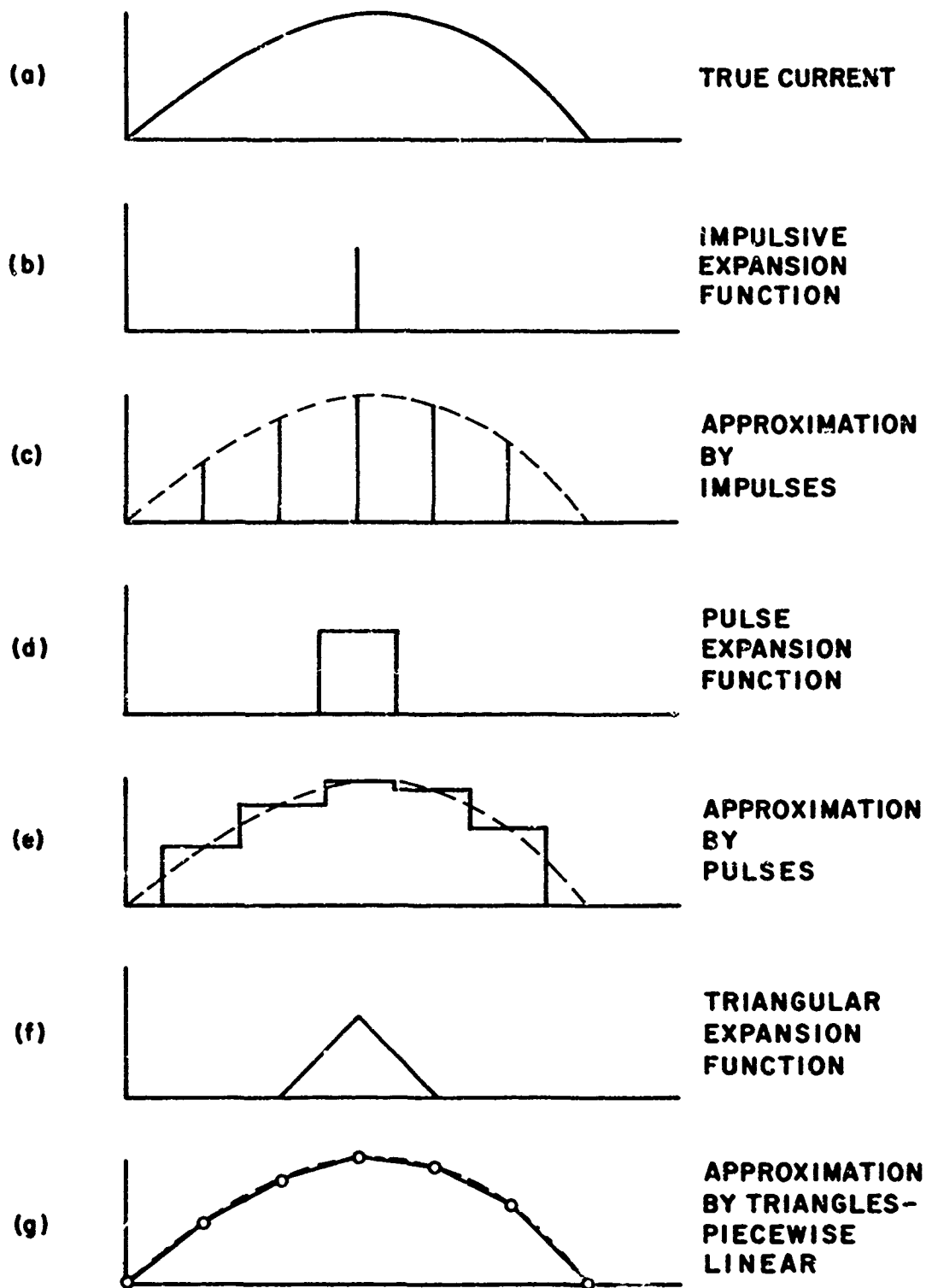


Figure 1-3 Typical expansion functions and resultant current representations

where

$$p_j(l) = 1 \quad \text{on the } j\text{th subsection} \\ = 0 \quad \text{elsewhere}$$

Note that the antennas need not be center-driven. Antennas with off-center feeds are treated as readily as in the centered case. Also, subsection lengths need not be uniform and subsection radii may differ. Note that the gap subsections are represented by current filaments. Essentially the subsections are small enough so that concepts of network theory may be used; any source which applies the proper voltage across the gap is acceptable. The magnitude of the gap currents is unknown, but their effect and the effect of all other currents is to apply the specified voltages across the gaps. We choose current sources rather than voltage sources for simplicity.

Thus, we have reduced the physical problem (Fig. 1-1a) to the model shown in Fig. 1-1d which consists of N elementary antennas divided into n total subsections ($n > N$). For purposes of this section, the current is assumed constant on each subsection. Later in section 1.2.4 the more general representation of the current is discussed in terms of arbitrary expansion and weighting functions.

Now, superposition and linearity may be used to express the relationship between currents and voltages. The voltage across typical subsection Δl_i may be expressed as a sum of the contributions due to all the currents:

$$v_i = i_1 z_{i1} + \dots + i_n z_{in} = \sum_{j=1}^n i_j z_{ij} = 0 \quad (\text{on metallic subsections}) \\ = \text{specified voltages (on driven subsections, i.e. gaps)} \quad (1-3)$$

where z_{ij} is the voltage^{*} across subsection i due to a unit current on subsection j.

Equation (1-3) is written at each of the n subsections, leading to a matrix equation

$$[v] = [z][i] \quad (1-4)$$

where $[v]$ is an n-element column matrix with zero elements at locations corresponding to metallic subsections and non-zero elements at driven subsections. $[i]$ is an n-element column matrix of the complex currents. $[z]$ is an nxn matrix, called the generalized impedance matrix. It represents all the interactions between the n subsections of the system and may be considered to be the n-port open-circuit impedance parameters of the system of n subsections. The impedance matrix $[z]$ depends only on the geometry of the problem (the locations, orientations, and radii of the various subsections) and the frequency ω .

The basic concept of the method of moments is thus very simple involving expansion of the current in subsectional bases, the linearity of the system of Fig. 1-1d and direct application of the boundary conditions. Many other types of problems in electromagnetics also lead to equations of the same general form (Eq. (1-4)). Now it remains to evaluate the typical element z_{ij} of the matrix $[z]$. This is a classical electromagnetic problem, involving the determination of fields due to a given current distribution. In most cases, closed form solutions are not available and $[z]$ must be determined by approximate methods.

*The voltage across a subsection may be defined in several different ways corresponding to different weighting functions [1]. The electric field in a given situation is, of course, unique. The simplest definition of voltage would be the product of tangential electric field times subsection length (impulsive weighting function).

1.2.2 DETERMINATION OF z_{ij} FOR PULSE EXPANSION FUNCTIONS AND IMPULSIVE WEIGHTING FUNCTIONS.

In this section methods for determining z_{ij} for parallel wire antennas are outlined and two slightly different computational techniques are described. Fig. 1-2 shows the basic geometry consisting of two parallel subsections of Δl_i and Δl_j . Note that, from Eq. (1-3), z_{ij} may be represented as follows

$$z_{ij} = \frac{v_i}{i_j} \quad (\text{with all currents other than } i_j \text{ equal to zero}) \quad (1-5)$$

which corresponds to the usual definition of open-circuit impedance in network theory. Thus, z_{ij} may be determined from a knowledge of the tangential electric field E_{zi} and the corresponding voltage v_i at subsection Δl_i , due to a unit current on subsection Δl_j . Note that

$$v_i = -E_{zi} (\Delta l_i) \quad (1-6)$$

because of the polarities assumed in Fig. 1-2.

The problem is thus the classical one of determining the electric fields due to a filament of current with finite length. Maxwell's equations for the time-harmonic case are:

$$\nabla \times \underline{E} = -j\omega\mu\underline{H} \quad (1-7)$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{H} = j\omega\epsilon\underline{E} + \underline{J} \quad (1-8)$$

The electric and magnetic fields may be expressed in terms of the magnetic vector potential $\underline{A}$ and the scalar electric potential ϕ where

$$\underline{A} = \mu \iiint_V \frac{\underline{J}(\underline{r}') e^{-jk|\underline{r}-\underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}-\underline{r}'|} dv' \quad (1-9)$$

$$\phi = \iiint_V \frac{\rho(\underline{r}') e^{-jk|\underline{r}-\underline{r}'|}}{4\pi\epsilon|\underline{r}-\underline{r}'|} dv' \quad (1-10)$$

where $\underline{r}$ and $\underline{r}'$ represent vectors from the origin to field point (x,y,z) and source point (x',y',z') , respectively. The volume v' includes all sources (currents). k is the free space wave number. $\underline{J}$ is volume current density and ρ is volume charge density.

Equations (1-9) and (1-10) are obtained from Maxwell's equations and the following assumptions:

$$\underline{B} = \nabla \times \underline{A} \quad (1-11)$$

$$\underline{E} = -j\omega\underline{A} - \nabla\phi \quad (1-12)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{A} = -j\omega\epsilon\mu\phi \quad (1-13)$$

The differential forms of eqs. (1-9) and (1-10) are:

$$(\nabla^2 + k^2)\underline{A} = -\mu\underline{J} \quad (1-14)$$

$$(\nabla^2 + k^2)\phi = -\rho/\epsilon \quad (1-15)$$

The equation of continuity may be represented as

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{J} = -j\omega\rho \quad (1-16)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{J}_s = -j\omega\sigma \quad (1-17)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{I} = -j\omega\lambda \quad (1-18)$$

where $\underline{J}_s$ and $\underline{I}$ represent surface and line current density and σ and λ represent surface and line charge density. Note that the subscript s is omitted in Fig. 1-1b. Eq. (1-17) applies to the actual finite-radius wire model and Eq. (1-18) applies to the filamentary model which is used to compute z_{if} . The electric and magnetic fields are now given in terms of $\underline{A}$ and ϕ by Eqs. (1-11) and (1-12). The electric field may also be expressed in terms of $\underline{A}$ alone using Eqs. (1-11) and (1-18).

$$\underline{E} = \frac{\nabla \times \nabla \times \underline{A}}{j\omega\epsilon\mu} - \frac{\underline{J}}{j\omega\epsilon} \quad (1-19)$$

For straight, z-directed wires (Fig. 1-1d), $\underline{J}$ and $\underline{A}$ are z-directed and the wave equation (Eq. (1-14)) reduces to

$$(\nabla^2 + k^2)A_z = -\mu J_z \quad (1-20)$$

and the z component of Eq. (1-19) reduces to

$$E_z = \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon\mu} \left(-\frac{\partial^2 A_z}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2 A_z}{\partial y^2} \right) - \frac{J_z}{j\omega\epsilon} \quad (1-21)$$

substituting (1-20) in (1-21) yields

$$E_z = \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon\mu} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} + k^2 \right) A_z \quad (1-22)$$

For filamentary currents, Eq. (1-9) reduces to a line integral, i.e.

$$A_z = \mu \int_{\text{wires}} \frac{I_z(z') e^{-jk|\underline{r}-\underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}-\underline{r}'|} dz' \quad (1-23)$$

and the tangential electric field E_{zi} at arbitrary point i is

$$E_{zi} = \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) \int_{\text{wires}} \frac{I_z(z') e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i-\underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i-\underline{r}'|} dz' \quad (1-24)$$

where $\underline{r}_i$ is a vector from the origin to the particular field point i (See Fig. 1-2). Changing the line integral to a summation of integrals over typical subsection Δl_j and substituting Eq. (1-1) with pulse currents (Eq. (1-2)):

$$E_{zi} = \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) \sum_{j=1}^n I_j \int_{\Delta l_j} \frac{e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i-\underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i-\underline{r}'|} dz' \quad (1-25)$$

Now if the field point i is specialized to the center $^*(x_i, y_i, z_i)$ of typical subsection Δl_i , then the voltage v_i across subsection Δl_i may be represented as follows:

$$v_i = -\Delta l_i E_{zi} = \sum_{j=1}^n I_j \underbrace{\frac{-\Delta l_i}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) \int_{\Delta l_j} \frac{e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|} dz'}_{z_{ij}} \quad (1-26)$$

and the term in brackets may be identified as the generalized impedance z_{ij} :

$$v_i = \sum_{j=1}^n z_{ij} I_j \quad (1-27)$$

As index i assumes values $1 \dots n$, the matrix equation

$$[v] = [z][i] \quad (1-28)$$

is obtained.

It is shown in Appendix B (Eq. (B-11)) that z_{ij} as given in Eq. (1-26) may be represented as follows:

$$z_{ij} = j\omega\mu\Delta l_i\Delta l_j\psi + \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \frac{\Delta l_i\Delta l_j}{\Delta z} \left[\psi\left(\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, \frac{\Delta z}{2}\right) - \psi\left(\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2}\right) - \psi\left(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, \frac{\Delta z}{2}\right) + \psi\left(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2}\right) \right] \quad (1-29)$$

where

$$\psi = \frac{1}{\Delta l_j} \int_{\Delta l_j} \frac{e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|} dz' \quad (1-30)$$

* As noted previously, boundary conditions are applied at finite radius "a". This is especially important in computing the self impedance z_{ii} and is less important if subsection Δl_i is distant from subsection Δl_i . Thus the finite wire radius is taken into account even though a filamentary current model is used.

and $\psi(+\Delta z'/2, -\Delta z/2)$ represents ψ of Fig. 1-2 with subsection Δl_j shifted as $\Delta z'/2$ upwards, and subsection Δl_i shifted as $\Delta z/2$ downwards, etc. $\Delta z'$, Δz represent increments used for numerical differentiation. If these increments are chosen equal to corresponding subsection lengths ($\Delta z' = \Delta l_j$, $\Delta z = \Delta l_i$), then Eq. (1-29) becomes

$$z_{ij} = j\omega\mu\Delta l_i\Delta l_j\psi + \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} [\psi(+,+) - \psi(+,-) - \psi(-,+) + \psi(-,-)] \quad (1-31)$$

where $\psi(+,-)$ represents ψ of Fig. 1-2 with subsection Δl_j shifted $\Delta l_j/2$ upwards and subsection Δl_i shifted $\Delta l_i/2$ downwards, etc. ψ may be evaluated by methods given in [1], [2]. Eq. (1-31) agrees with Eq. (22) of [3] derived under different assumptions: pulse expansion functions for both charges and currents. Thus the two methods lead to an identical formulation if the increments Δz , $\Delta z'$ used for evaluating derivatives are subsection lengths.

Thus the antenna problem of Fig. 1a has been reduced to a set of linear equations which can be solved by standard techniques for such systems. The crux of the problem is to determine the generalized impedance matrix $[z]$ which represents all the interactions among the current-carrying subsections. Note that $[z]$ depends only on the geometry of the problem. $[z]$ is, in effect, the open circuit impedance matrix of an n -port system consisting of the n subsections. The matrix $[z]$ is independent of excitation and loading. Any subsection of the antenna system may be opened up and excited with a voltage generator or loaded with a complex impedance, without changing the matrix $[z]$. The effects of loading are explained in more detail in section two.

1.2.3 THE SCATTERING PROBLEM

Consider the scattering problem shown in Fig. 1-4 which shows a known field $\underline{E}^{inc}$ incident upon a collection of straight, parallel thin wires which have been replaced with filamentary models. The wires have been divided into n subsections as before.

The boundary conditions are now applied to the total tangential electric field E_{zi} at the center of each wire subsection.

$$\text{Let } \underline{E} = \underline{E}^{(s)} + \underline{E}^{(inc)} \quad (1-32)$$

where $\underline{E}^{(inc)}$ is the known incident field and $\underline{E}^{(s)}$ is the field radiated by the current-carrying wires.

Taking the z component of Eq. (1-32) and specializing the field point to the center of subsection Δl_i :

$$E_{zi} = E_{zi}^{(s)} + E_{zi}^{(inc)} \quad (1-33)$$

Define incident, scattered, and total voltages as follows:

$$v_i^{(inc)} = -E_{zi}^{(inc)} \Delta l_i \quad (1-34a)$$

$$v_i^{(s)} = -E_{zi}^{(s)} \Delta l_i \quad (1-34b)$$

$$v_i = -E_{zi} \Delta l_i \quad (1-34c)$$

and let $[v^{(inc)}]$, $[v^{(s)}]$, and $[v]$ be the corresponding column matrices of subsection voltages.

The scattered field $E_{zi}^{(s)}$ may be evaluated by Eqs. (1-29) - (1-31) since the field $E_{zi}^{(s)}$ desired is that due to radiating wires, as before.

$$E_{zi}^{(s)} = -\frac{1}{\Delta l_i} \sum_{j=1}^n I_j z_{ij} \quad (1-35)$$

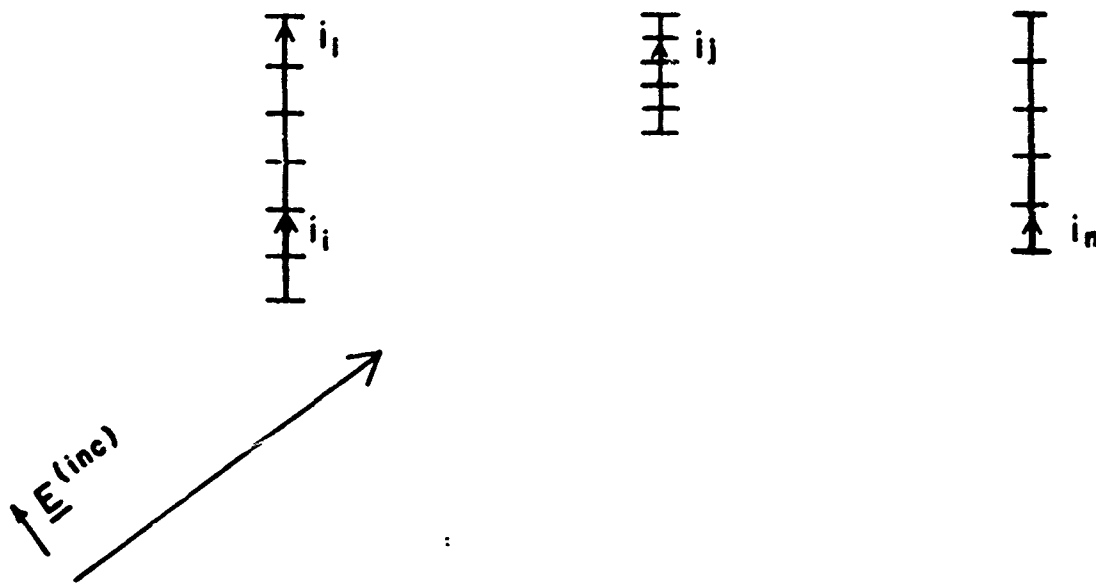


Figure 1-4 The scattering problem

and writing Eq. (1-35) at the center of each subsection yields a matrix equation

$$[v^{(s)}] = [z][i] \quad (1-36)$$

The equivalent of Eq. (1-33) is

$$[v] = [v^{(s)}] + [v^{(inc)}] \quad (1-37)$$

which becomes, for metallic scatterers,

$$[v] = 0 = [v^{(s)}] + [v^{(inc)}] \quad (1-38)$$

or

$$[-v^{(inc)}] = [z][i] \quad (1-39)$$

where the typical element of $[-v^{(inc)}]$ is $E_{zi}^{(inc)}(\Delta l_i)$. Eq. (1-39) may be solved by matrix inversion (or other techniques) for the unknown wire currents $[i]$.

The scattering problem is thus reduced to the matrix equation (1-39) which is similar in form to the matrix equation (1-28) except that the left hand side of (1-28), the voltage excitation matrix, has been replaced with the negative of the incident voltages. The reason for the sign reversal is, of course, tied in with the distinction between scattered, incident, and total fields. $[z]$ includes all interactions among subsections of the scatterers and is thus identical to the $[z]$ matrix which would be used to analyze the radiation properties of this system of conductors (the radiation properties of the system of Fig. 4 excited and loaded at one or more subsections). Note that the incident or impressed field may be that of a plane wave, a spherical wave or any other type of wave. The basic assumption is that the source of the wave is an independent source (not affected by the scattered radiation from the wires).

1.2.4 ARBITRARY WEIGHTING AND EXPANSION FUNCTIONS

In sections 1.2.1 and 1.2.2 the current has been assumed constant over each subsection (pulse expansion function). Fig. 1-3 indicates that better approximations to the current are obtained with more sophisticated expansion functions. Moreover, point-matching has been used in sections 1.2.1 and 1.2.2, i.e., the boundary conditions have been applied at specific points (subsection centers). The tangential electric field is zero at the center of each metallic subsection, but there is no control over its value at intermediate points between subsection centers. A more sophisticated application of the boundary conditions would be to set an average or weighted average of the tangential field equal to zero at metallic subsections in radiation problems.

Consider the electric field E_{zi} due to currents on the wires of Fig. 1-1 as given by Eq. (1-24):

$$E_{zi} = \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) \int_{\text{wires}} \frac{I_z(z') e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|} dz'$$

let $I(z') = \sum I_j f_j(z)$, as in Eq. (1-1) where the f_j are arbitrary expansion functions, and let $w(z)$ be an arbitrary (weighting) function. Substituting in Eq. (1-24):

$$E_{zi} = \sum_{j=1}^n I_j \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) \int_{\Delta\ell_j} \frac{f_j(z') e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|} dz' \quad (1-40)$$

Multiplying both sides of Eq. (1-40) by $w(z)$ and integrating over subsection

$$\Delta\ell_i:$$

$$\int_{\Delta\ell_i} E_{zi} w(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^n I_j \int_{\Delta\ell_i} \frac{w(z)}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) dz \int_{\Delta\ell_j} \frac{f_j(z') e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|} dz' \quad (1-41)$$

Interchanging the order of differentiation and integration:

$$\int_{\Delta l_1} E_{z1} w(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^n I_j \int_{\Delta l_1} \int_{\Delta l_1} \underbrace{\frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_1^2} + k^2 \right) \frac{f_j(z') w(z) e^{-jk|\underline{r}_1 - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_1 - \underline{r}'|}}_{z_{1j}} dz' dz \quad (1-42)$$

now $\int_{\Delta l_1} E_{z1} w(z) dz$ is defined as voltage v_1 , the double integral on the right hand side of Eq. (1-42) is defined as the generalized impedance z_{1j} , and

Eq. (1-42) becomes

$$v_1 = \sum_{j=1}^n z_{1j} I_j$$

which in turn becomes

$$[v] = [z][i] \quad (1-43)$$

as i runs through the indices $1 - n$.

Note that the voltage definition has been generalized and now represents a weighted integral of the electric field. If $w(z)$ is an impulse and $f_j(z')$ is a pulse function, then Eq. (1-42) reduces to Eq. (1-26). A further generalization of Eq. (1-42) may be made by replacing the integrals with inner products [1].

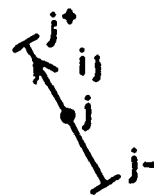
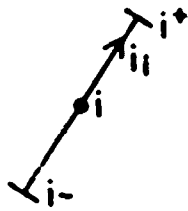
1.3 THE METHOD OF MOMENTS FOR NON-PARALLEL THIN WIRES

The development of sections 1.2.1 and 1.2.2 may be extended to non-parallel (skewed) wires (Fig. 1-5). This involves replacement of $(\partial^2/\partial z^2 + k^2)$ with the operator $(\nabla \times \nabla \times)$ and the use of various trigonometric relationships. The development is laborious but straightforward. Details of the development for pulse expansion functions are given in the literature [110].

The result for z_{1j} is

$$z_{1j} = -\frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} [(k^2 \Delta l_1 \Delta l_j) \cos \theta_{1j} \psi - [\psi(+,+) - \psi(-,+) - \psi(+,-) + \psi(-,-)]] \quad (1-44)$$

(a)



(b)



Figure 1-5 Skewed wires (a) typical subsections (b) skew angle

where θ_{ij} is the skew angle and $\psi(+,-)$ represents ψ of Fig. 1-5a with subsection Δl_j shifted $\Delta l_j/2$ towards $j+$ (so that its center is now at $j+$) and with subsection Δl_i shifted $\Delta l_i/2$ towards $i-$ (so that its center is now at $i-$) etc. The corresponding developments for triangular expansion functions [98], [105] and for sinusoidal expansion functions [125]-[128] are also given in the literature.

II - LOADING AND EXCITATION IN THE METHOD OF MOMENTS

In this chapter the effects of excitation and loading of subsections are considered. Several different methods for treating loads are outlined.

2.1 SUBSECTION (n-PORT) PARAMETERS

Consider a collection of thin-wire antennas such as that shown in Fig. 1-1. The antennas are subsectioned and it is assumed that the subsections are small electrically, i.e. $\frac{\Delta l}{\lambda} \ll 1$, where Δl is subsection length. It is assumed that there are n total subsections, as in Fig. 1-1d, and that N subsections are excited and/or loaded.

Figure 2-1 shows a typical subsection Δl_i driven with an applied voltage v'_i and loaded with a lumped impedance element z_{li} . v'_i and z_{li} represent the Thevenin's equivalent circuit of the devices and loads attached to subsection Δl_i . Since the subsections are small electrically, the response of the system of antennas to the excitation and loading does not depend on the fine details of the generators and load construction, but only on the values of the applied voltage v'_i and load z_{li} . As far as terminal behavior is concerned, the electromagnetic problem becomes a network problem. The application of boundary conditions leads to the matrix equation

$$[v] = [z][i] \quad (2-1)$$

and the equations of constraint

$$[v] = [v'] - [z_l][i] \quad (2-2)$$

where

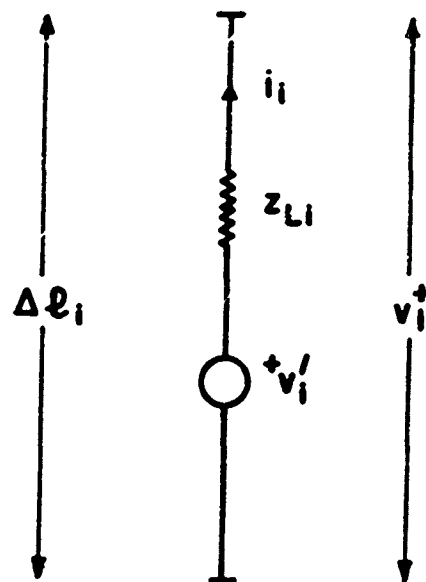


Figure 2-1 A typical driven, loaded subsection (series model)

$$[v] = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad [v'] = \begin{bmatrix} v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ v'_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad [i] = \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ \vdots \\ i_n \end{bmatrix},$$

$$[z] = \begin{bmatrix} z_{11} & \dots & z_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{n1} & \dots & z_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad [z_\ell] = \begin{bmatrix} z_{\ell 1} & & \bigcirc \\ & \ddots & \vdots \\ \bigcirc & & z_{\ell n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Combining (1) and (2):

$$[v] = \begin{bmatrix} v'_1 - z_{\ell 1} & i_1 \\ v'_2 - z_{\ell 2} & i_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ v'_n - z_{\ell n} & i_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_{11} & \dots & z_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{n1} & \dots & z_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ i_n \end{bmatrix}$$

transposing terms $-z_{\ell k} i_k$ yields

$$[v'] = \begin{bmatrix} v'_1 \\ v'_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ v'_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (z_{11} + z_{\ell 1}) & z_{12} & \dots & z_{1n} \\ z_{21} & (z_{22} + z_{\ell 2}) & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_{n1} & \dots & \dots & (z_{nn} + z_{\ell n}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ i_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{or } [v'] = [[z] + [z_\ell]] [i] = [z'_\ell] [i] \quad (2-3)$$

$$\text{where } [z'_\ell] = [z] + [z_\ell]$$

Solving for the currents:

$$[i] = [z'_\ell]^{-1} [v'] = [y'_\ell] [v'] \quad (2-4)$$

where

$$[y'_\ell] = [z'_\ell]^{-1}$$

and then the total voltages $[v]$ may be determined by Eq. (2-2). Note that the effect of loading is merely to replace matrix $[z]$ with $[[z] + [z_l]]$ and $[v]$ with $[v']$.

In Eq. (2-2), zeros occur on the left hand side if the total voltage across a subsection is zero. In Eq. (2-3), zeros occur on the left hand side only if the applied voltage is zero. Thus, if a subsection is loaded but not driven, a zero would occur in the appropriate element of $[v']$. All problems involving loading and excitation may be treated by the above formulation. However, in some cases a simpler matrix equation may be used. These special cases are described in sections 2.2 and 2.3.

2.2 N-PORT PARAMETERS OF THE DRIVEN OR LOADED SUBSECTIONS

The addition or changing of a load changes all the currents and, as a result, the near and far fields. In order to determine these quantities, then, we need to invert a new $n \times n$ matrix as in Eq. (2-4). If, however, we are concerned only with behavior at the N driven and/or loaded ports, such as port voltages, port currents, coupling from one port to another, etc., then the inversion of an N by N matrix is sufficient.

$$\text{Let } [y] = [z]^{-1} \quad (2-5)$$

From the larger $n \times n$ $[y]$ matrix, the terms corresponding to the N driven ports are selected to form an N -port short circuit admittance matrix denoted by $[Y]$ (see [3], [54], [129]). The N -Port open circuit impedance matrix, denoted by $[Z]$, is the inverse of $[Y]$.

$$[Z] = [Y]^{-1} \quad (2-6)$$

and the voltages and currents at the N driven and/or loaded ports are related by

$$[V] = [Z][I] \quad (2-7)$$

and the appropriate equation of constraint is

$$[V] = [V'] - [Z_\ell][I] \quad (2-8)$$

where

$$[V] = \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ \vdots \\ V_N \end{bmatrix}, \quad [V'] = \begin{bmatrix} V'_1 \\ \vdots \\ V'_N \end{bmatrix}, \quad [I] = \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ \vdots \\ I_N \end{bmatrix},$$

$$[Z] = \begin{bmatrix} Z_{11} & \cdots & Z_{1N} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ Z_{N1} & \cdots & Z_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad [Z_\ell] = \begin{bmatrix} Z_{\ell 1} & & \bigcirc \\ & \ddots & \\ \bigcirc & & Z_{\ell N} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that in Eqs. (2-1) and (2-2), the n-port parameters are denoted by lower case letters and in Eqs. (2-7) and (2-8) the N-port parameters of the driven subsections are denoted by upper case letters. Combining Eqs. (2-7) and (2-8) yields

$$[V'] = [[Z] + [Z_\ell]][I] = [Z'_\ell][I] \quad (2-9)$$

where

$$[Z'_\ell] = [Z] + [Z_\ell]$$

which is solved by matrix inversion

$$[I] = [Z'_\ell]^{-1}[V'] = [Y'_\ell][V'] \quad (2-10)$$

where

$$[Y'_\ell] = [Z'_\ell]^{-1}$$

The total voltages may then be obtained from Eq. (2-7). Comparing Eqs. (2-4) and (2-10), it is noted that

$$Y'_{lij} = y_{lij} \quad (2-11)$$

for those ports i, j which are loaded and/or driven. Thus the matrix $[Y_L]$ may be formed by selecting appropriate elements of $[y_\ell]$, as is the case with $[Y]$ and $[y]$.

2.3 THE DUAL ANALYSIS FOR LOADING

Fig. 2-2 shows the Norton's equivalent circuit of the devices and loads attached to subsection $\Delta \ell_1$ where I'_1 represents short circuit current and $y_{\ell 1}$ represents the admittance seen when the current generator is deactivated.

Now we may write the following matrix relationships between currents and voltages at the n subsections:

$$[i] = [i'] - [y_\ell][v] \quad (2-12)$$

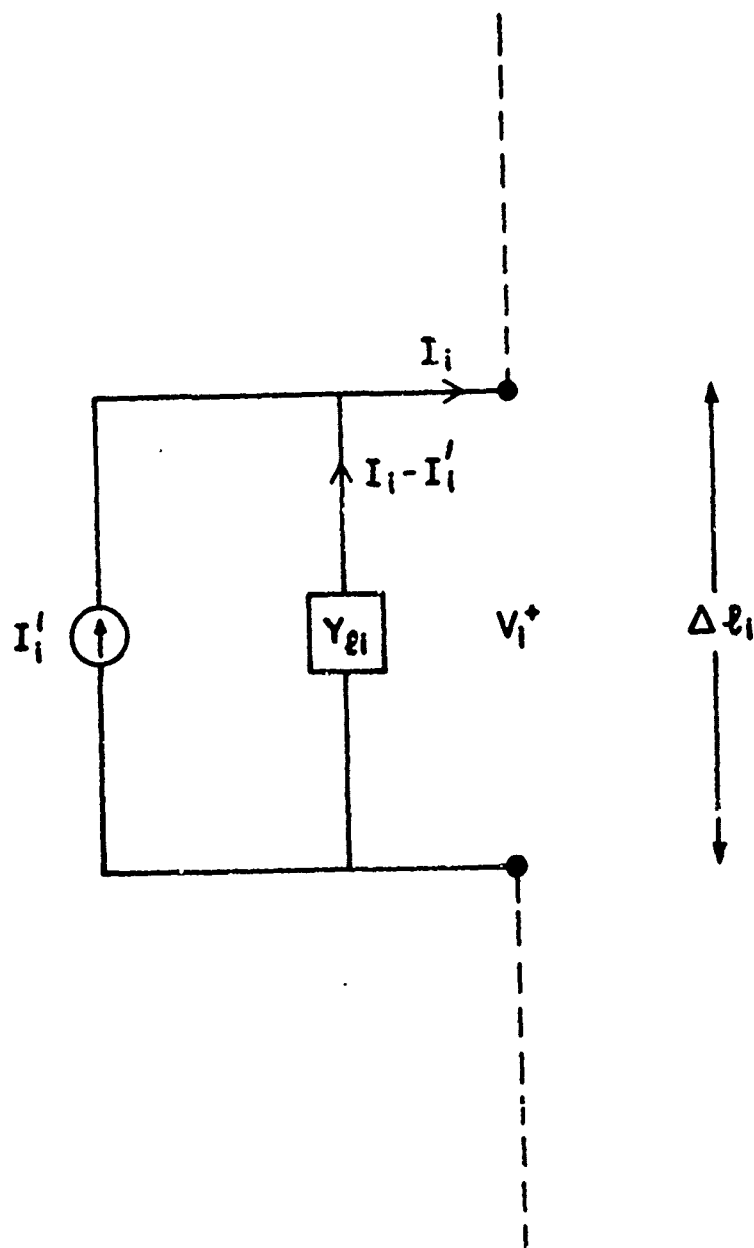
$$[i] = [y][v] \quad (2-13)$$

where

$$[i'] = \begin{bmatrix} v'_1/z_{\ell 1} \\ \vdots \\ v'_n/z_{\ell n} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2-14)$$

$$[y_\ell] = \begin{bmatrix} y_{\ell 1} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & y_{\ell 2} & \\ & \text{○} & & \ddots \\ & & & & y_{\ell n} \end{bmatrix} = [z_\ell]^{-1} \quad (2-15)$$

and $[y] = [z]^{-1}$ as in Eq. (2-5)



$$I_i' = V_i' / Z_{ei} = Y_{ei} V_i'$$

Figure 2-2 A typical driven, loaded subsection (parallel model).

Then, transposing terms in (2-13)

$$[i'] = [[v] + [y_\ell]] [v] = [v'_{\ell D}] [v] \quad (2-16)$$

and

$$[v] = [y'_{\ell D}]^{-1} [i'] = [z'_{\ell D}] [i'] \quad (2-17)$$

where the subscript D indicates a dual quantity. Once the specified driving voltages $[v']$ are known, then $[i']$ may be determined from (2-14), $[v]$ may be determined from (2-17), and $[i]$ may then be determined from (2-13). Note that $[y'_{\ell D}]$, $[z'_{\ell D}]$ are not necessarily equal to $[y'_\ell]$, $[z'_\ell]$.

Similarly, the following dual relationships may readily be developed for the N-Port analysis:

$$[I'] = [[V] + [Y_\ell]] [V] = [Y'_{\ell D}] [V] \quad (2-18)$$

$$[V] = [Y'_{\ell D}]^{-1} [I'] = [Z'_{\ell D}] [I'] \quad (2-19)$$

$$\text{and} \quad [I] = [I'] - [Y_\ell] [V] \quad (2-20)$$

where

$$[I'] = \begin{bmatrix} v'_1/z_{\ell 1} \\ v'_2/z_{\ell 2} \\ \vdots \\ v'_N/z_{\ell N} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$[Y_\ell] = \begin{bmatrix} y_{\ell 1} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & y_{\ell N} \end{bmatrix} = [Z_\ell]^{-1}$$

In chapter two, the effects of loading for a system of n subsections have been considered. Mathematically, the effect is merely to replace the

generalized ($n \times n$) impedance matrix $[z]$ with $[z] + [z_l]$ where $[z_l]$ is a diagonal load matrix, and to replace $[v]$, the total voltage excitation matrix, with $[v']$, the applied voltage excitation matrix. The terminal behavior (terminal voltages and currents) at driven and/or loaded ports may be described by an $N \times N$ matrix equation where N is the total number of such ports. Finally, the dual formulation for loading is described.

LII - SUMMARY OF METHODS FOR THE DETERMINATION OF AUXILIARY QUANTITIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In sections one and two, the matrix equation (1-28) and its related forms (1-39), (2-3), (2-16) have been considered as the basic formulation of the radiation or scattering problem, from which the currents may be determined. In this short section, the determination of other quantities of interest is described briefly and references are given for more complete descriptions.

3.2 IMPEDANCE AND ADMITTANCE QUANTITIES

Once the currents and voltages are known for a given system, input impedances at a driven port are given simply by the ratio of voltage to current at that port. The input impedance at any subsection of the system may thus be determined by opening up the subsection and exciting it with a voltage generator. The input impedance may also be determined directly from $[z]$ and $[z_0]$.

Consider an antenna system such as that of Fig. 1d consisting of n total subsections. Suppose that N subsections are driven and/or loaded. The open-circuit impedance matrix and the short circuit admittance matrix of the N -port system can be readily obtained from $[z]$. First $[y]$ is obtained by inverting $[z]$. Then the elements y_{ij} are selected, where both i and j are members of the N -port system (driven and/or loaded ports), to form an $N \times N$ matrix $[Y]$ (See [3], [54], [129]). This matrix $[Y]$ is the short-circuit admittance matrix of the N -port system, and its inverse $[Z]$

is the open-circuit impedance matrix. If N is much smaller than n , it may be convenient to utilize $[Y]$ and $[Z]$ to establish the terminal behavior for different excitations. Any of the other common network parameters, such as the scattering matrix, ABCD parameters, etc., may also, of course, be obtained from $[Y]$, $[Z]$.

3.3 NEAR AND FAR FIELDS

Once the currents are known, the near and far fields may be obtained by further matrix operations. The near fields are, of course, considerably more complicated than the far fields. At a point in the near field, there are in general three components of $\underline{E}$ and three components of $\underline{H}$. The electric and magnetic vectors at a point trace out independent polarization ellipses in time [130]. However, the basic information is available from the matrix $[z]$. Since z_{ij} is proportional to the electric field (in a given direction) at field point i , due to the current on subsection j , one need only sum over all subsections to obtain one component of $\underline{E}$ at near field point i . The other components of $\underline{E}$ are obtained in a like manner and the three components of $\underline{H}$ are obtained by numerical differentiation of the ψ functions. Details of the near field procedure are given in [71], [73], [83], [85], [89], [98], [104], [105], [110], [125]-[128], [130]-[134].

The far field computation represents merely a specialization of z_{ij} to the far field case. The far fields are obtained simply by summing the contributions of all subsections (See [3] for details). Directive gain may be obtained by an integration of the far field beam pattern.

3.3.1 Radiation Hazards

Radiation hazards may be evaluated at a point in the near field by considering all complex components of the near fields [130]. The computer program described in [73] has a subroutine which computes radiation hazards in the near field of a collection of thin-wire antennas or scatterers.

3.3.2 Near Field Ellipses

Once the six complex components of $\underline{E}$ and $\underline{H}$ are known at a near field point, the description of the near field ellipses may readily be obtained [130]. Complete information on the near field $\underline{E}$ and $\underline{H}$ ellipses (ellipticity, plane of the ellipse, orientation of the major axis) is provided by a subroutine of the computer program described in [73].

3.4 BEAM PATTERN SYNTHESIS

Beam pattern synthesis can be utilized in conjunction with matrix methods. Given an array of N antennas with N feed points, one may specify N points of the far field beam pattern and then determine the required N voltage excitations at the feed points. One may also specify the beam pattern at more than N points and find the N voltage excitations for least square error with respect to the specified pattern. The beam pattern may also be synthesized subject to other constraints. Details on synthesis procedures are given in [46], [87], [151].

3.5 OPTIMIZATION OF RADIATION CHARACTERISTICS

Many of the typical performance characteristics of an antenna system, such as gain, efficiency and quality factor, may be optimized with or without constraints. For instance, given a system of N antennas, with N

feed points, one may readily obtain the value of the maximum gain in a given direction, and the required voltage excitations (at the N feed points) which produce that gain. Details of the optimization procedures are given in [1], [3], [54], [108].

3.6 APERTURE COUPLING

Electromagnetic coupling through apertures in plane screens may be evaluated by the method of moments. Babinet's principle is employed to transform the problem to one of scattering by the complementary disk. For infinitely long slots, the problem simplifies and may be treated accurately for slots of considerable width ($> 1/2\lambda$). The surface of the complementary disk is modeled exactly in this case. For apertures of arbitrary shape, and of moderate area ($\leq$ one square wavelength), the complementary disk may be modeled approximately as a wire grid. Then the usual thin-wire methods may be applied to compute such quantities as aperture fields, fields radiated beyond the aperture, transmission coefficient, etc.

3.7 ANTENNA-TO-ANTENNA COUPLING

Antenna-to-antenna coupling may, of course, be evaluated directly once all loads have been taken into account and all currents and voltages on the wire structures are known. The power out of a driven section and the power absorbed by a loaded subsection may be evaluated directly in terms of the subsection current and voltage.

3.8 ELECTROSTATIC APPLICATIONS

The method of moments may be applied to electrostatic problems. The details of the development for electrostatics are given in [39], [40]. The

excitations are the static voltages applied to a system and the response is, for instance, the unknown induced charge distribution. The charge-bearing surfaces are divided into subsections and appropriate expansion functions for the unknown charge distributions are assumed. A matrix equation of the form

$$[V] = [D][\sigma] \quad (3-1)$$

results, where $[V]$ is a column matrix representing the voltage excitation, $[\sigma]$ is a column matrix representing the unknown induced charges, and $[D]$ is a square matrix representing the interactions among subsections. D_{ij} , for instance, may represent the potential at subsection i due to a unit charge on subsection j . Various electrostatic calculations may be carried out, such as the determination of capacitance and resistance, and the evaluation of electric fields and potentials [49], [39], [40]. The method of moments has been used extensively in connection with the evaluation of the static properties of microstrip transmission lines.

IV - SOME APPLICATIONS OF THE METHOD OF MOMENTS FOR THIN WIRES

The method of moments may be applied to a wide variety of antenna and scattering problems. Examples of computed and experimental data for representative problems are presented in this section. Most of the examples presented represent phenomena which could not in the past be adequately treated.

4.1 DIPOLE-TO-DIPOLE COUPLING

One may compute the coupling between any two thin-wire antennas, using the method of moments and the formulation of section two. Coupling is defined here as the ratio of output power to input power.

K. Siarkiewicz has made an extensive theoretical and experimental study of dipole-to-dipole coupling [135]-[137]. Figs. 4-1 to 4-3 show some typical results of this study.* Fig. 4-1 shows computed and experimental data for the coupling between two resonant parallel dipoles oriented end-to-end as shown in Fig. 4-1. One dipole is centered and the other is centerloaded with 50Ω . Dipole radius is 0.0119λ and dipole length is 0.48λ . Note that the loaded antenna is located at a beam-pattern null of the driven antenna. Only the radial component E_r of the electric field, which falls off as $1/r^2$, contributes to coupling. Accordingly, the coupling approaches a 12 db/octave asymptote. The experimental data shows reasonably good agreement with the predicted results. There is a small periodic experimental error present, which arises from ground reflections, as explained later. The magnitude of the error increases with spacing d .

Fig. 4-2 shows computed data for dipole-to-dipole coupling for $\lambda/4$ dipoles arranged (a) end-to-end and (b) broadside. Dipole radius is

*The ratio of output to incident power is plotted in Figs. 4-1 to 4-3. This differs from coupling if the input reflection coefficient is nonzero.

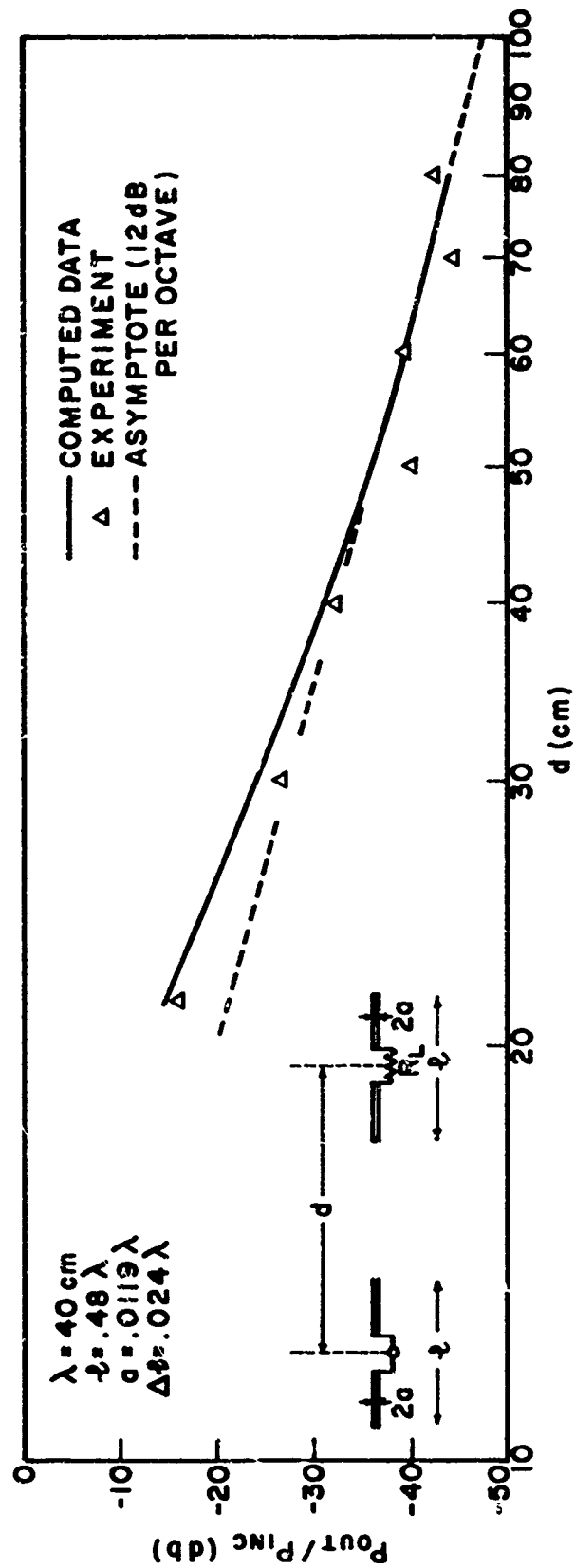


Figure 4-1 Coupling between resonant dipoles oriented end-to-end.

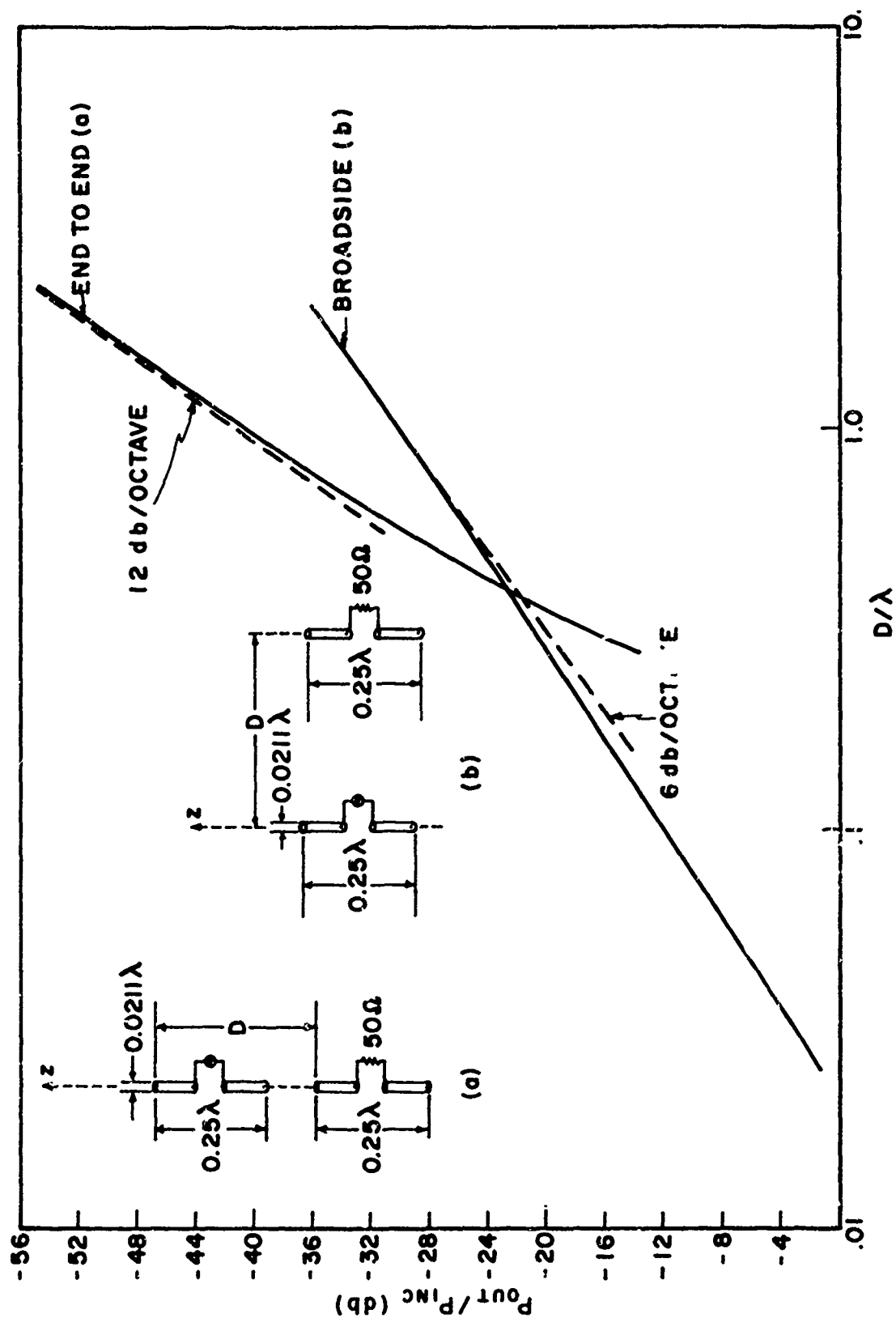


Figure 4-2 Coupling between quarter-wave dipoles oriented end-to-end and broadside.

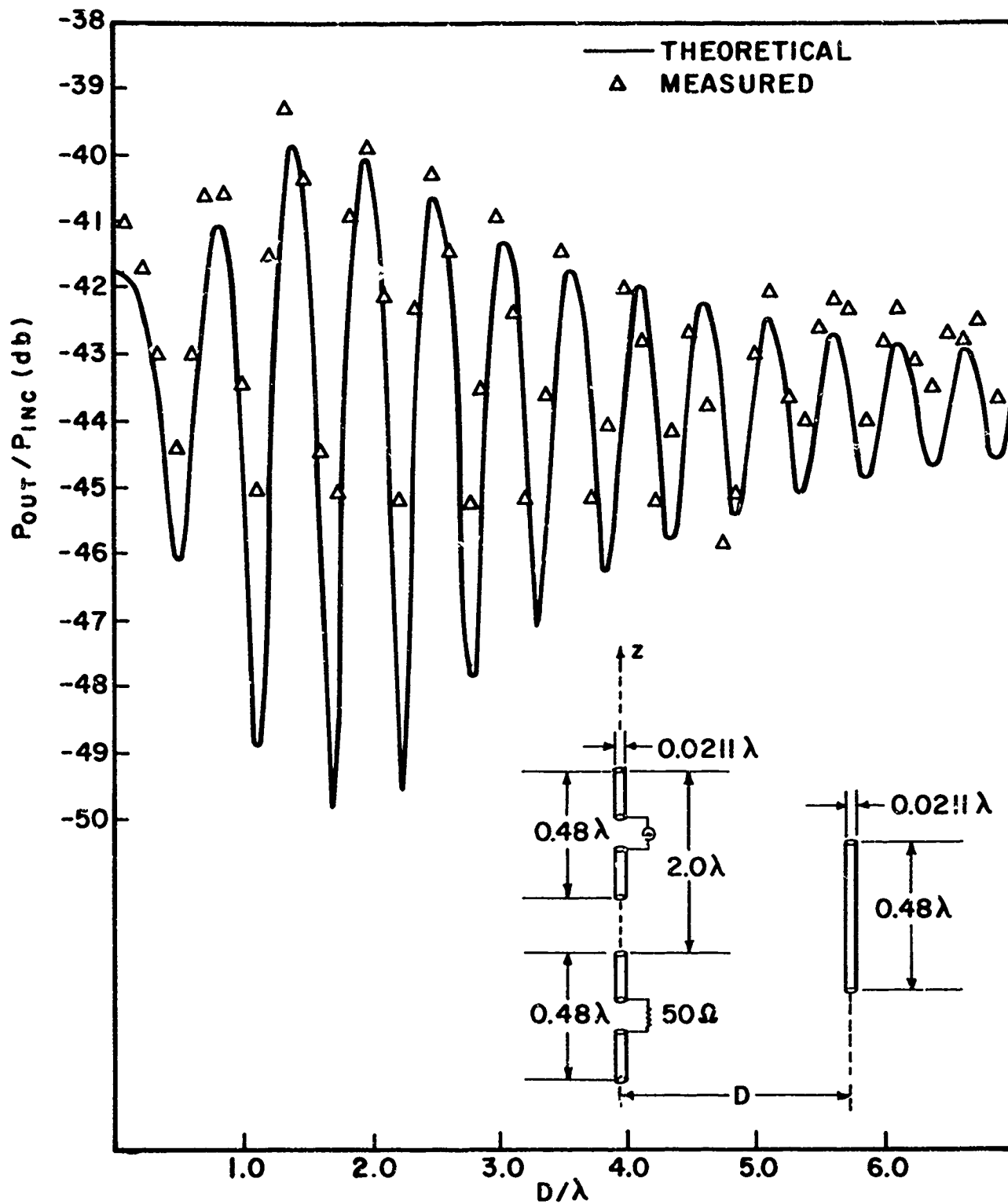


Figure 4-3 Coupling between resonant dipoles oriented end-to-end in the presence of a parasitic wire.

0.01055λ . The end-to-end case approaches a 12 db/octave asymptote, whereas the broadside case approaches a 6 db/octave asymptote. Note that for very small values of D/λ , the coupling in the end-to-end case actually exceeds that of the broadside case.

Coupling in the presence of parasitic wires may also be accurately predicted by moment methods. Fig. 4-3 shows two resonant-length dipoles, arranged end-to-end, with a resonant parasitic element located nearby. In effect, there are two coupling paths, one direct and one by way of the parasitic element. Both the currents on the driven element and those on the parasite contribute to coupling. As spacing D is varied, the two contributions, which are nearly equal in magnitude, add for some spacings and partially cancel for others, giving rise to the oscillatory coupling effect shown in Fig. 4-3. The measured data shows excellent agreement, except near the nulls. Note that both the positions and values of the peaks in coupling are accurately predicted, despite the rapid oscillation as a function of D/λ . A small experimental error due to ground reflections is believed to be responsible for the departure near the nulls. One would not, of course, expect good agreement near the nulls if there were any reflections present. The experimental error caused by ground reflections increases with increasing D/λ .

The experiments for Figs. 4-1 and 4-3 were performed by elevating the dipoles about 15λ above a concrete floor. Small reflections from the floor produce interference at the deep nulls of Fig. 4-3 and also give rise to the small periodic experimental error shown in Fig. 4-1. As separation of the dipoles increases, the level of the reflected signal becomes more

significant with respect to the direct signal. Thus experimental errors increase with dipole separation, as indicated in Figs. 4-1 and 4-3.

Siarkiewicz has shown [135] that, for parallel dipoles on a common ground plane, coupling may be accurately predicted by a simple empirical formula. He has also shown that, for electrically small dipoles, coupling cannot be accurately measured (special corrections which utilize theoretical data are required). More complete information on coupling computations is included in references [135]-[137] and in a forthcoming volume of the Method of Moments Applications Series.

4.2 NEAR-FIELD PREDICTION

The study of near fields has been of interest to antenna engineers for many years. It has been a difficult study because of the generally complex nature of the near-field structure. Even for thin-wire antennas, there are only a few specific cases that have been studied in detail. However, interest in such problems is high because of the number of relatively high-power wire and rod antennas and high-gain arrays in use and because of concern over possible associated radiation hazards and compatibility problems.

The near fields of individual dipoles and linear dipole arrays have been studied in some detail and some of the results are shown in Figs. 4-4 to 4-9. Fig. 4-4 shows the near electric and magnetic fields of a center-fed halfwave dipole of a radius $a = 0.00\lambda$. Voltage excitation is one volt and frequency is 100 MHz. Fig. 4-4a shows the radial component E_ρ of the electric field, as computed by two different techniques of the method of moments. Method 1 uses pulse expansion functions and method 2 uses triangular expansion functions. The computer programs are described respectively

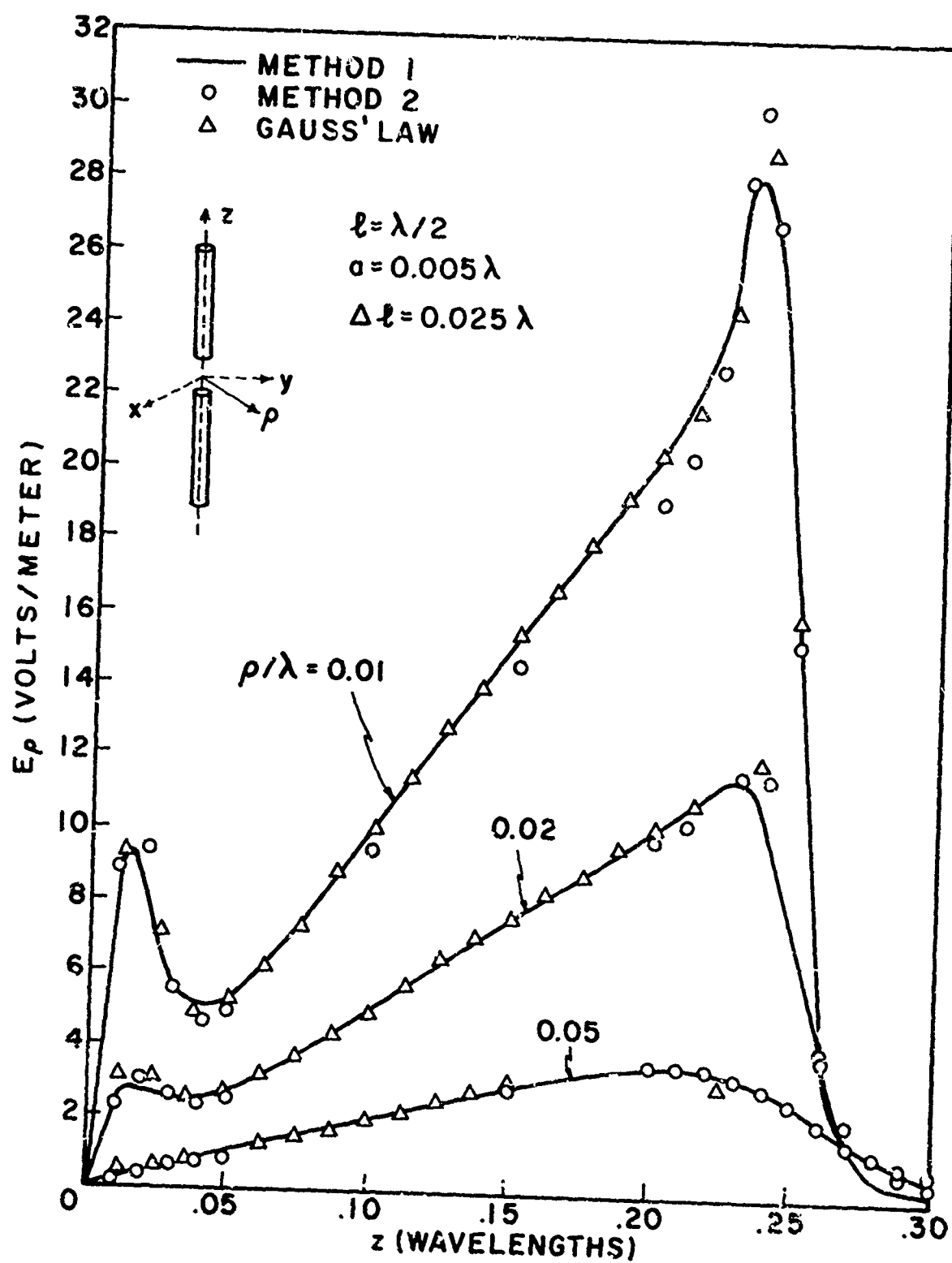


Figure 4-4a Near fields E_ρ of a halfwave dipole ($a/\lambda = 0.005$, $\Delta l/\lambda = 0.05$, $v = 1$ volt, $\lambda = 3\text{m}$).

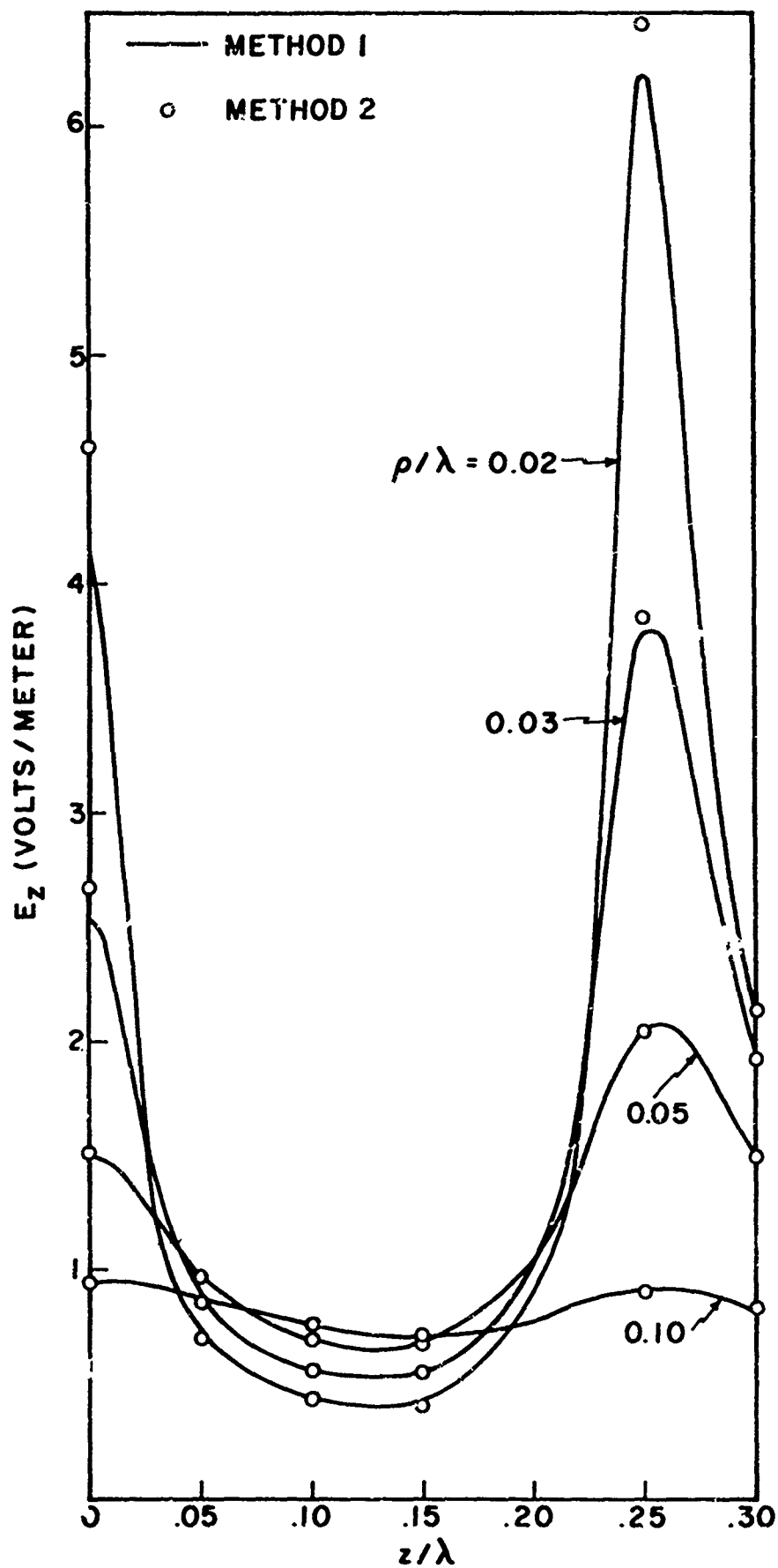


Figure 4-4b Near fields E_z of a halfwave dipole ($a/\lambda = 0.005$, $\Delta z/\lambda = 0.05$, $V = 1$ volt, $\lambda = 3\text{m}$).

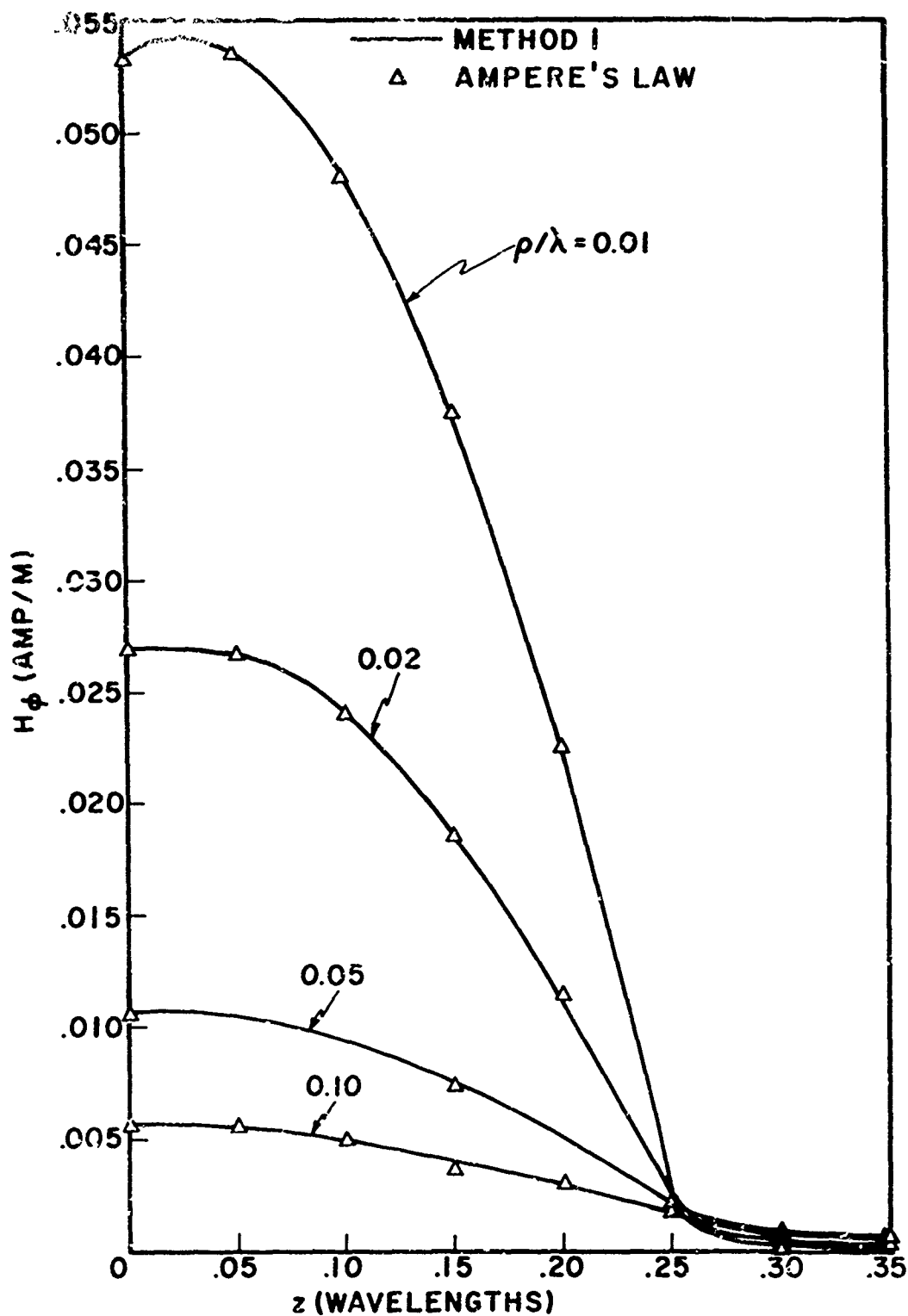


Figure 4-4c Near fields H_ϕ of a halfwave dipole ($a/\lambda = 0.005$, $\Delta l/\lambda = 0.05$,
 $V = 1$ volt, $\lambda = 3\text{m}$).

in references [73], [69]. Also shown in Fig. 4-4a is an approximate calculation of near fields from current distributions, based on a generalized Gauss' law formulation [71]. Note the excellent agreement among the three different methods, even at distances as close as 0.01λ (for $a/a = 2$). E_ρ has peaks near the gaps and near the ends of the dipole. In the central region ($z \approx 0.125\lambda$), E_ρ has a $(1/\rho)$ dependence on ρ . Methods 1 and 2 diverge slightly near the ends of the dipole and this is expected because of the difference in expansion functions. Fig. 4-4b shows the tangential component E_z of the electric field as computed by methods 1, 2. E_z has approximately a $\ln(\rho/a)$ dependence in the central region ($z = 0.125\lambda$). Fig. 4-4c shows the magnetic field component H_ϕ , as compared with an approximate calculation of near fields from current distribution, based on a generalized Ampere's law formulation [71]. H_ϕ has approximately a $1/\rho$ dependence. The data shown in Fig. 4-4 have also been compared with other results in the literature. The computed data on near fields E_ρ , E_z , H_ϕ show very close agreement with Harrison et al. [138] for $\rho = 0.05\lambda$. The data for E_z lies between those of King and Wu [139]-[141] and Galejs [142] for $\rho < 0.05\lambda$.

Fig. 4-5 shows a comparison of dipole near-field computation with experimental results. A third technique of the method of moments, that of ref. [127], with sinusoidal expansion functions, is added. Figs. 4-5a, b show data for E_ρ , E_z respectively at $\rho = 0.03\lambda$. Even at this close spacing, the agreement among computational methods and between theory and experiment is excellent.

Fig. 4-6 shows the near electric field of an eight-element linear array of centered halfwave dipoles with halfwave spacing. Fig. 4-6a shows the

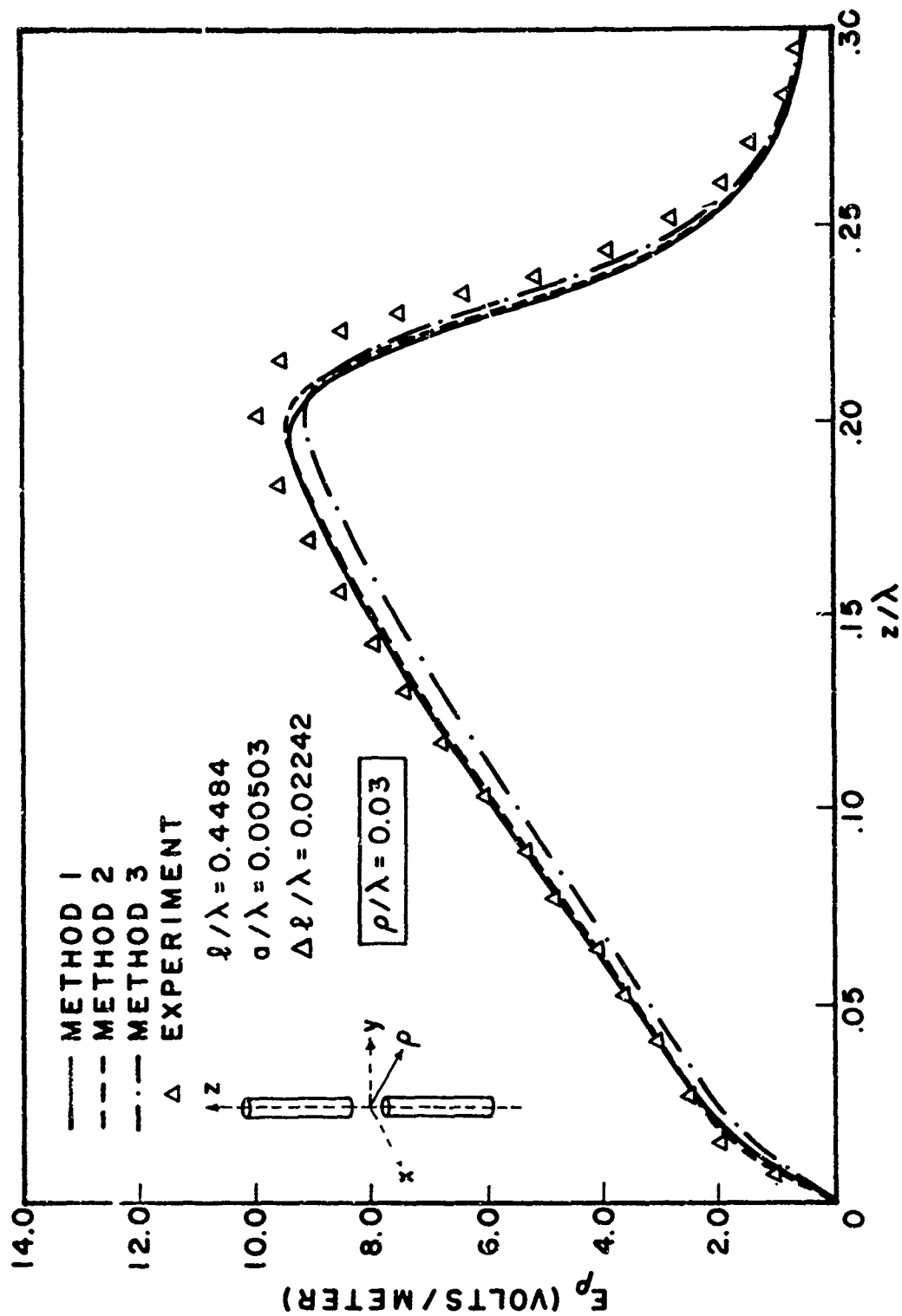


Figure 4-5a Near fields E_p of a resonant dipole - theory and experiment
 ($a/\lambda = 0.00503$, $l/\lambda = 0.04484$, $\Delta l/\lambda = 0.02242$, $\lambda = 3m$).

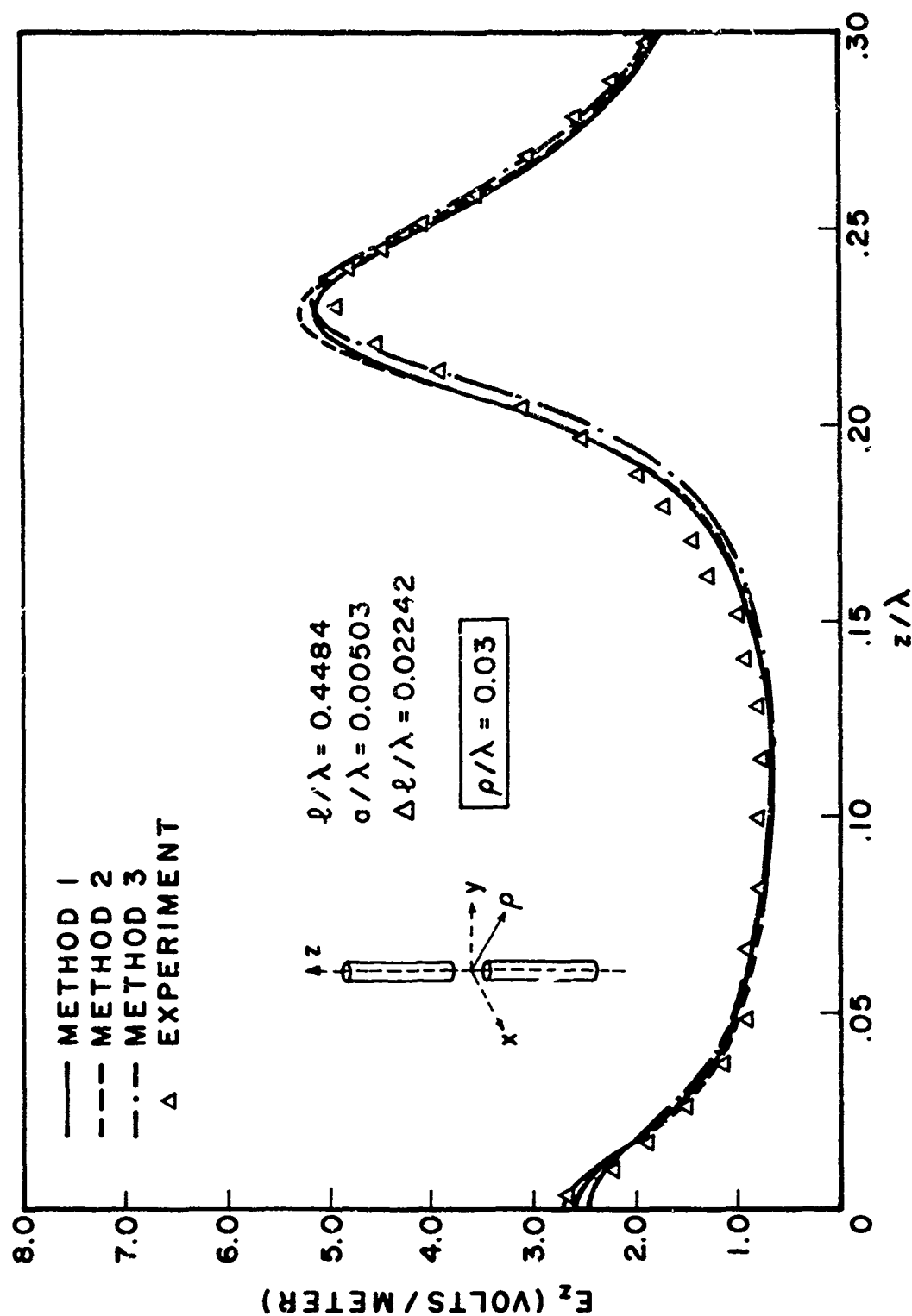


Figure 4-5b Near fields E_z of a resonant dipole - theory and experiment
 ($a/\lambda = 0.00503$, $l/\lambda = 0.4484$, $\Delta l/\lambda = 0.02242$, $\lambda = 3\text{m}$).

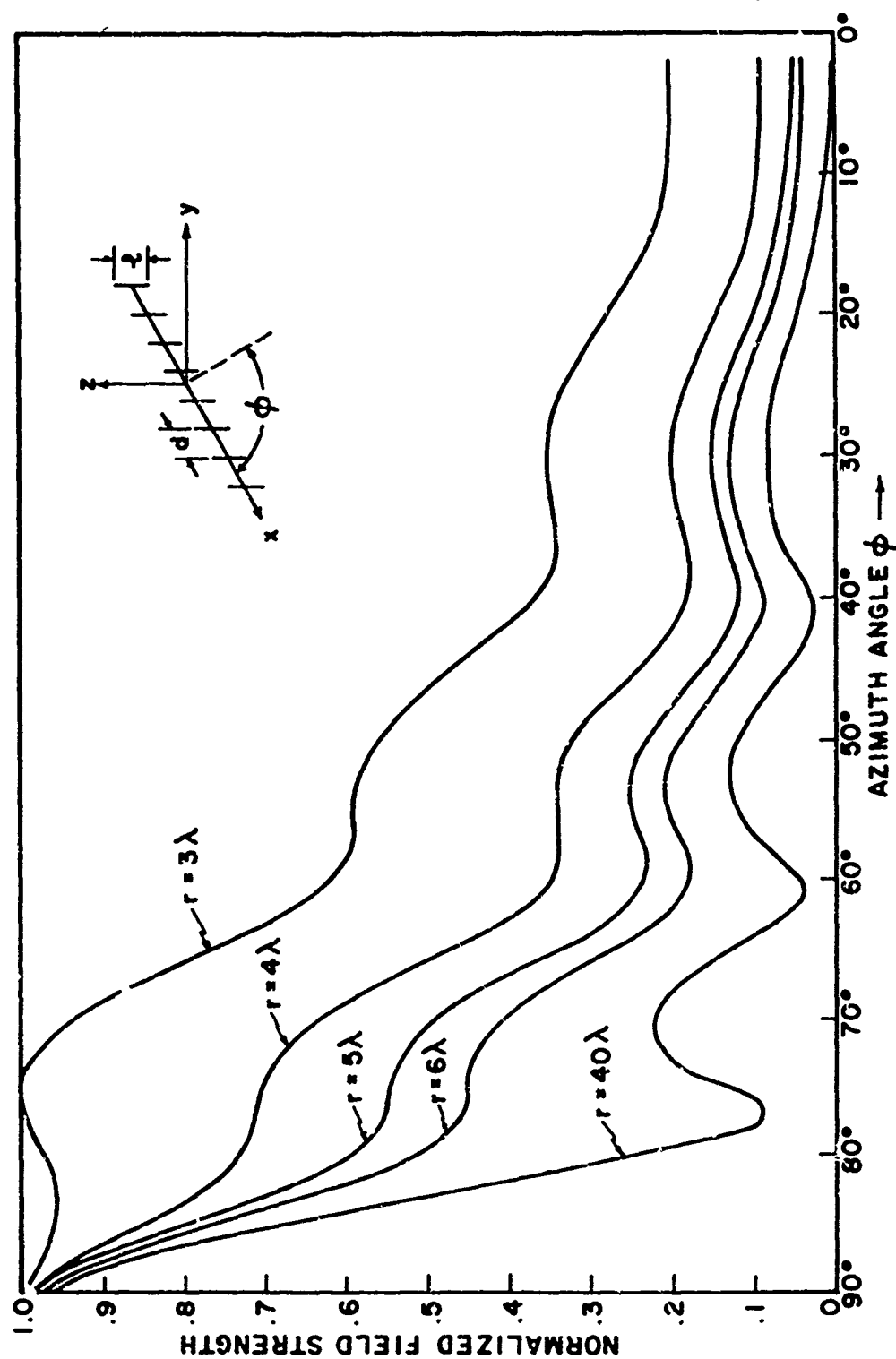


Figure 4-6a Near electric field of an eight-element linear array of dipoles ($l/\lambda = 0.5$, $d/\lambda = 0.5$, $z = 0$). Polar Coordinate plot, broadside excitation.

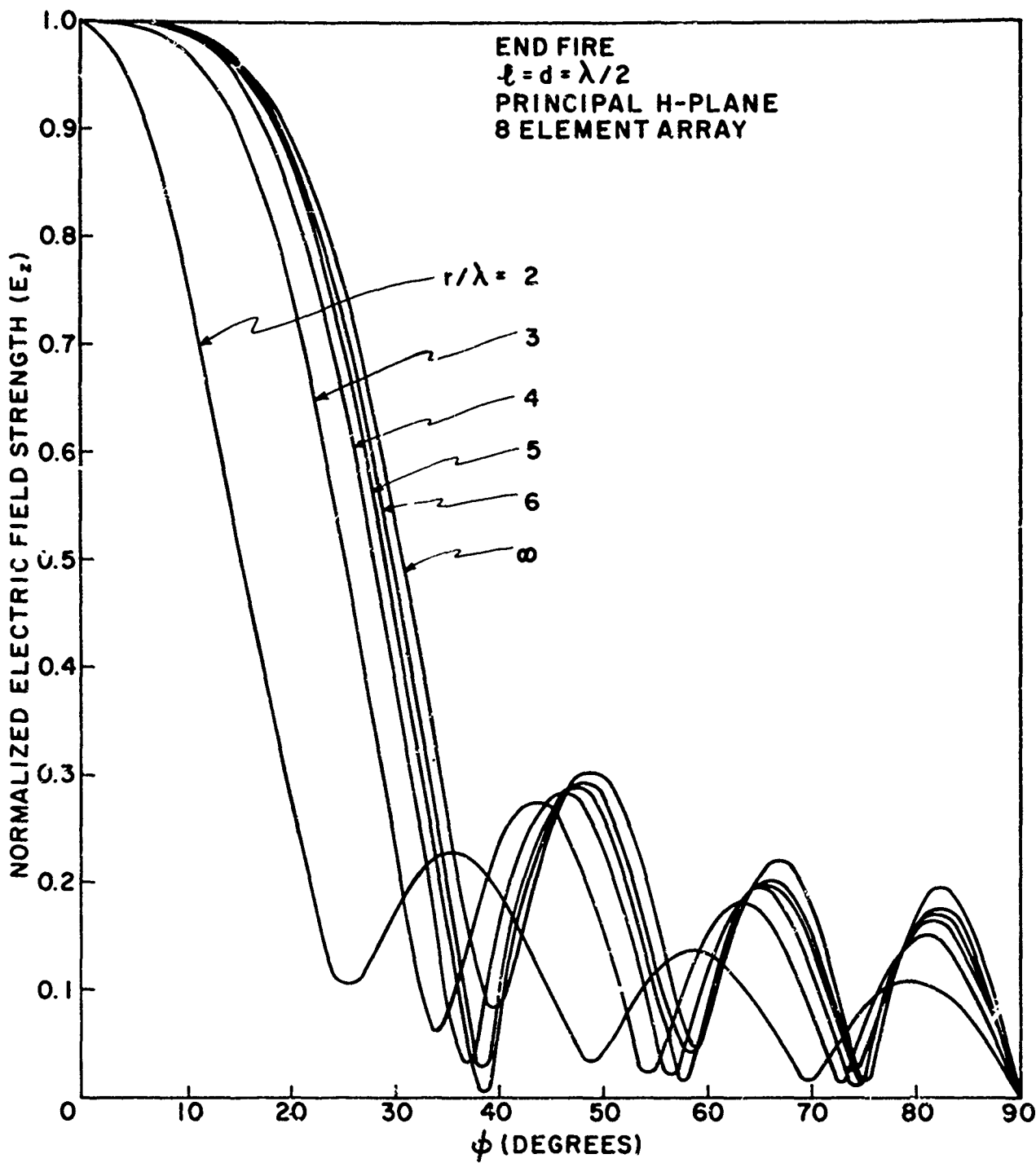


Figure 4-6b Near electric field of an eight-element array of dipoles ($\ell/\lambda = 0.5$, $d/\lambda = 0.5$, $z = 0$) - Polar coordinate plot, endfire excitation.

near electric field, in the principal H-plane, for uniform excitation. Note that the patterns smoothly and gradually approach the far field pattern with the peaks and nulls forming gradually as r (radial distance to the field point) increases. The pattern for $r = 40\lambda$ is extremely close to that of the far field. Since mutuals are taken into account, there is some null fill-in and the far field pattern differs slightly from the classical pattern of an array of Hertzian dipoles. Fig. 4-6b shows the near electric field of the eight element array, in the principal H-plane, for endfire excitation. Note that the main beam broadens as radial distance r increases, in contrast to the broadside case (Fig. 4-6a) which shows main beam narrowing as r increases.

For points in the "very near" field, the electric and magnetic fields are strongly effected by the mutual interactions among dipoles [71]. Fig. 4-7a shows a plot of electric field strength across the face of the eight-element array, at distances between $.05$ and $.25\lambda$. Fig. 4-7b shows a corresponding plot of the electric field strength of an eight-element array of Hertzian dipoles. Apparently the mutuals have the effect of "smoothing out" the variations of electric field in the "very near" region. The corresponding plot for the Hertzian dipoles in the region $r = 3 - 40\lambda$ differs only slightly from that of Fig. 4-6a.

The radiation hazards in the near fields may be computed [71], [130] once all the components of the electric field are known. Radiation hazard contours may readily be drawn from the printed output of a so-called "snapshot" routine [73] which prints out radiation hazard values over a given rectangle in space. Fig. 4-8 shows an example of such a plot in the principal H-plane ($z = 0$) of the uniformly excited eight-element array. Each dipole is excited

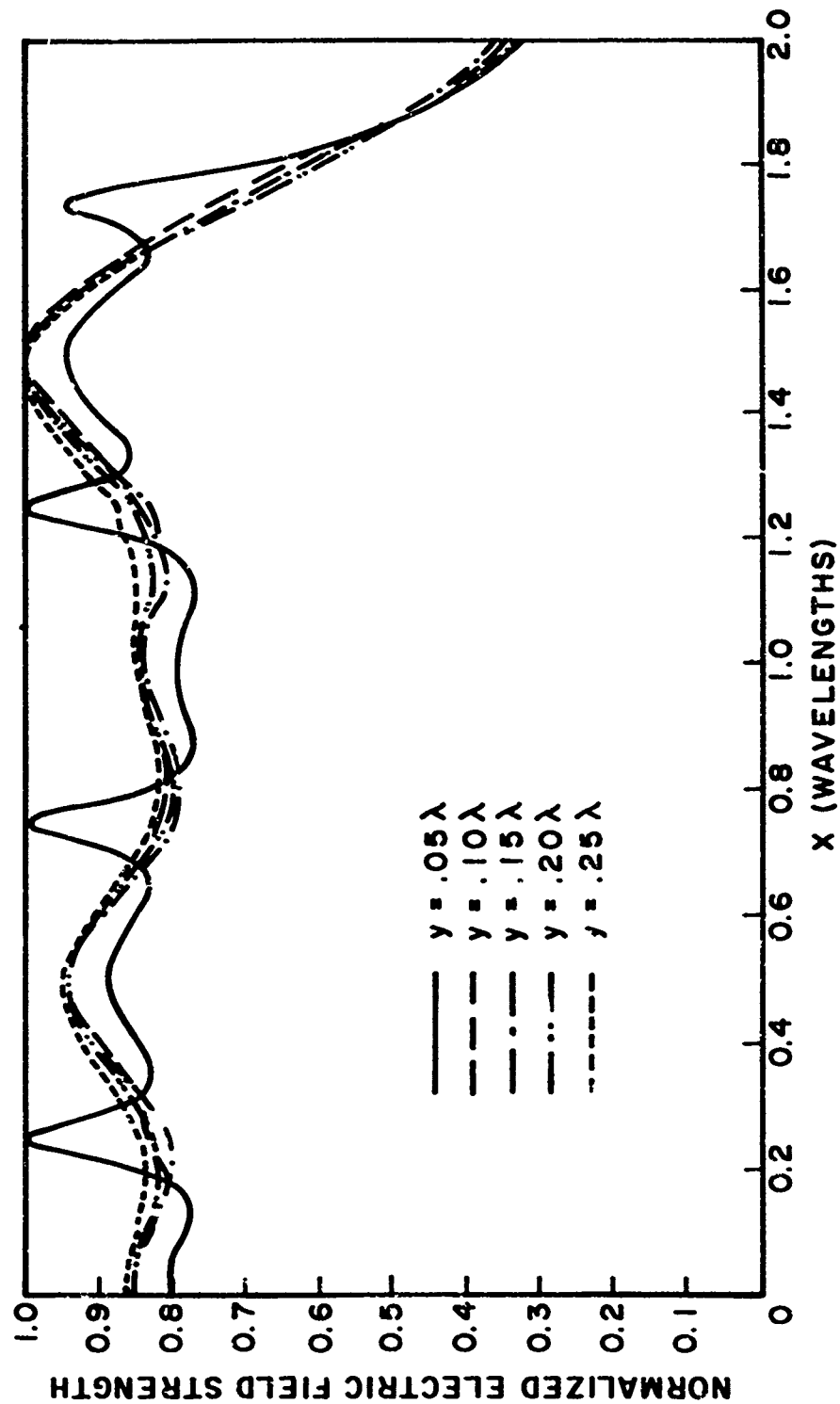


Figure 4-7a Near electric field of a uniformly excited array of dipoles ($d/\lambda = 0.5$, $z = 0$) - Rectangular plot, halfwave dipoles.

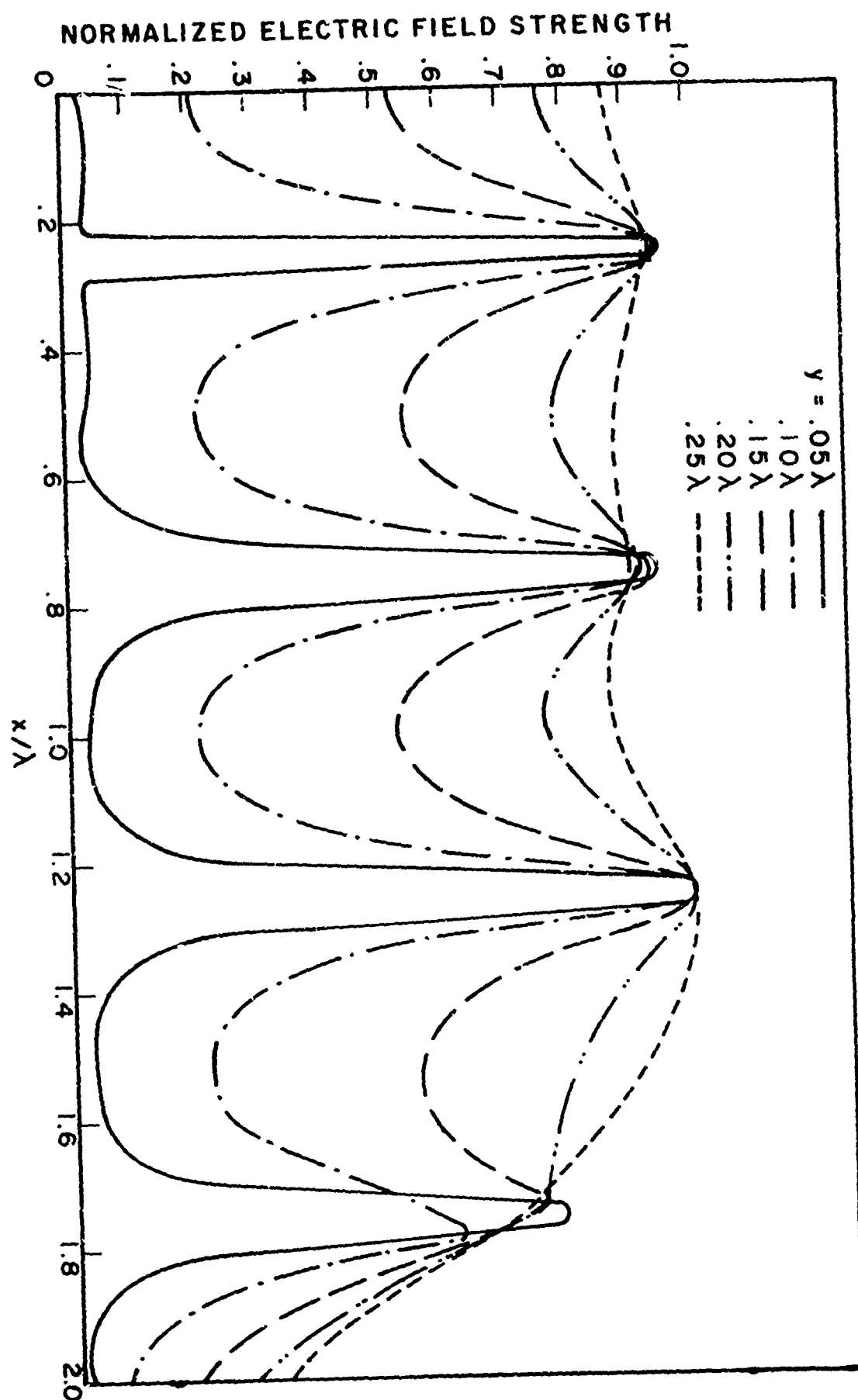


Figure 4-7b Near electric field of a uniformly excited array of dipoles ($d/\lambda = 0.5$, $z = 0$) - Rectangular plot, Hertzian dipoles.

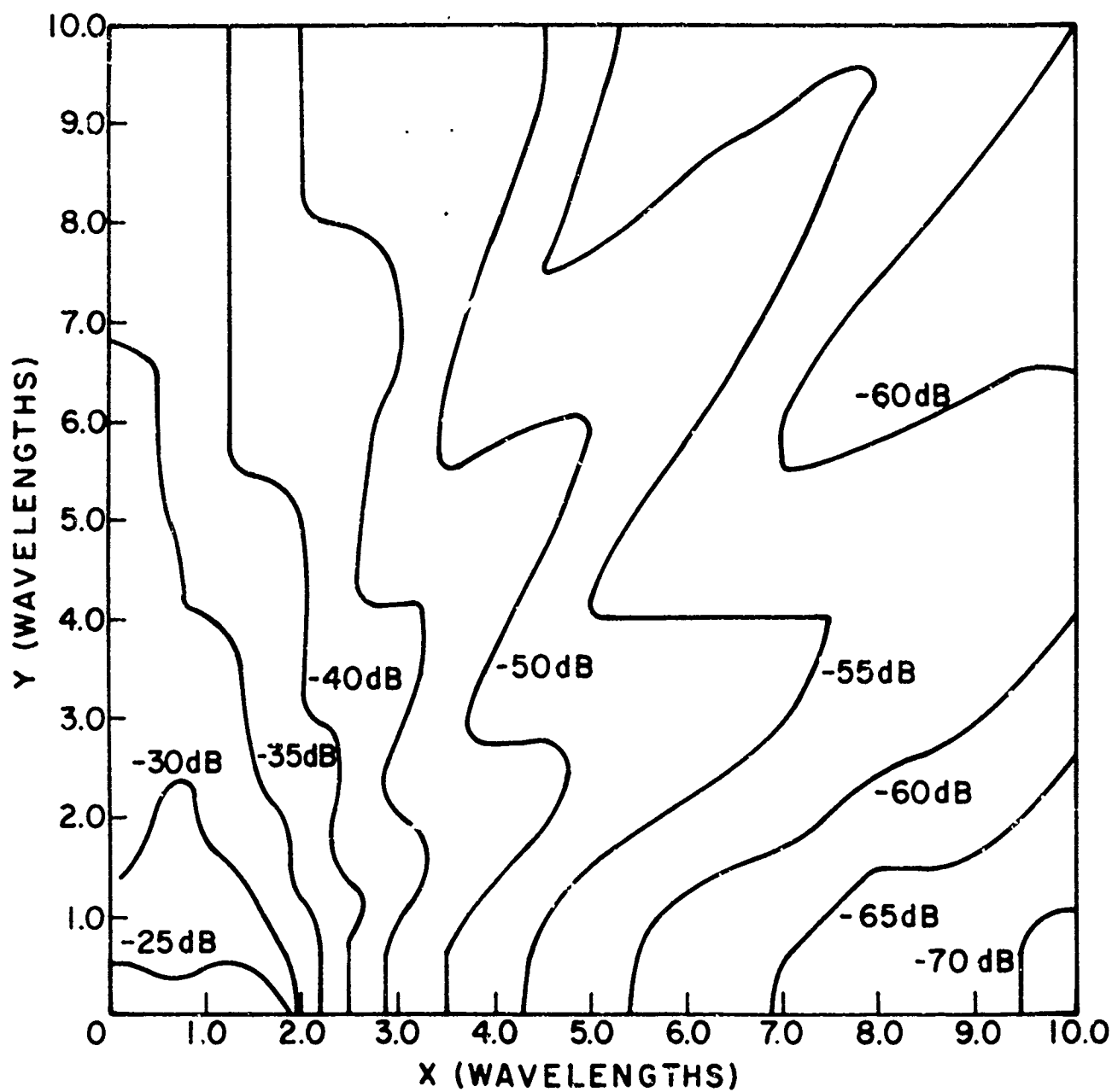


Figure 4-8 Radiation hazard contours in the principal H-plane of a uniformly excited eight-element linear array of dipoles ($v = 1$ volt, $l/\lambda = 0.5$, $d/\lambda = 0.5$, $z = 0$).

with one volt. The assumed radiation hazard criterion is 10 mw/cm^2 or 194 volts/m. Fig. 4-8 shows decibel levels relative to that criterion. Note that the partially formed peaks and nulls of the near field beam patterns (Fig. 4-6a) show up clearly in the plot of Fig. 4-8, forming progressively (as r increases) at angles corresponding to peaks and nulls of the far field beam pattern.

Fig. 4-9 shows a comparison of theory and experiment for the near-field component E_z in the principal H-plane of a two-dipole endfire array of resonant dipoles with halfwave spacing. The agreement between theory and experiment is good except at positions very close to the ends of the dipole.

More complete information on near-field problems is given in references [71], [73], [130]-[133], and in volumes #2, #3, #5 of the RADC Method of Moments Applications Series.

4.3 TRANSMISSION LINE INTERFERENCE WITH DIPOLE PERFORMANCE

Fig. 4-10 shows a transmission line of length l_t , wire radius " a " and wire center separation d , connected to a dipole of length l and wire radius " a ". The transmission line interferes with the dipole; it contributes a cross polarized component E_θ as well as interfering with the normal dipole pattern.

The characteristics of such thin-wire, finite-gap $\lambda/2$ and $\lambda/4$ dipoles fed with a length of two-wire transmission line have been studied using matrix methods [75], [113]. Transmission line length and gap size have been varied obtaining the complete solution (current distributions, impedance and far field beam patterns) in each case. Significant departures from the ideal dipole characteristics are found even for electrically small gap sizes and transmission line lengths. When the departures are small, they can be described

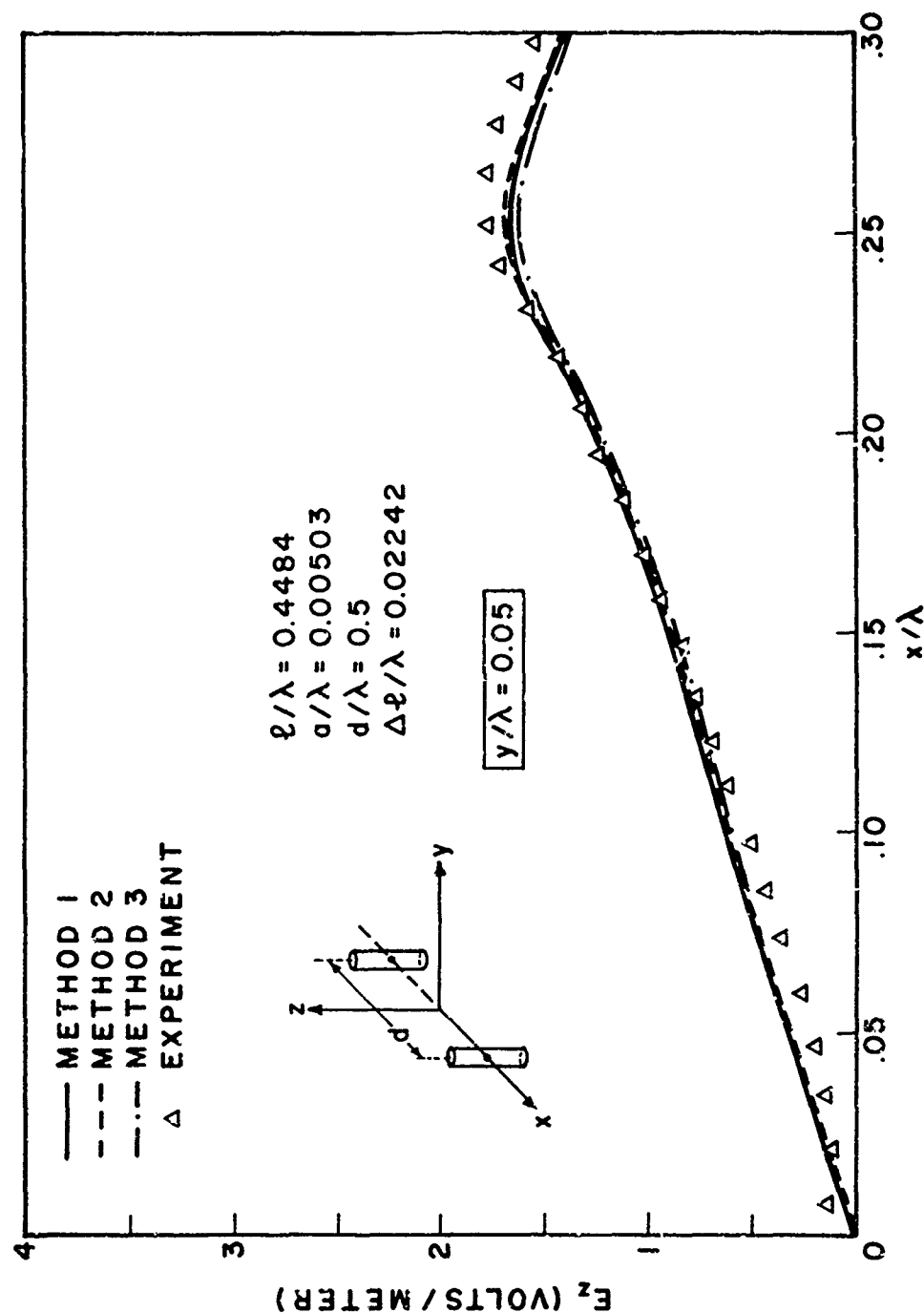


Figure 4-9a Near electric field of a two-element endfire array of resonant dipoles ($l/\lambda = 0.4484$, $d/\lambda = 0.5$, $a/\lambda = 0.00503$, $\Delta l/\lambda = 0.02242$, $\lambda = 3m$, $V = 1$ volt), $y/\lambda = 0.05$.

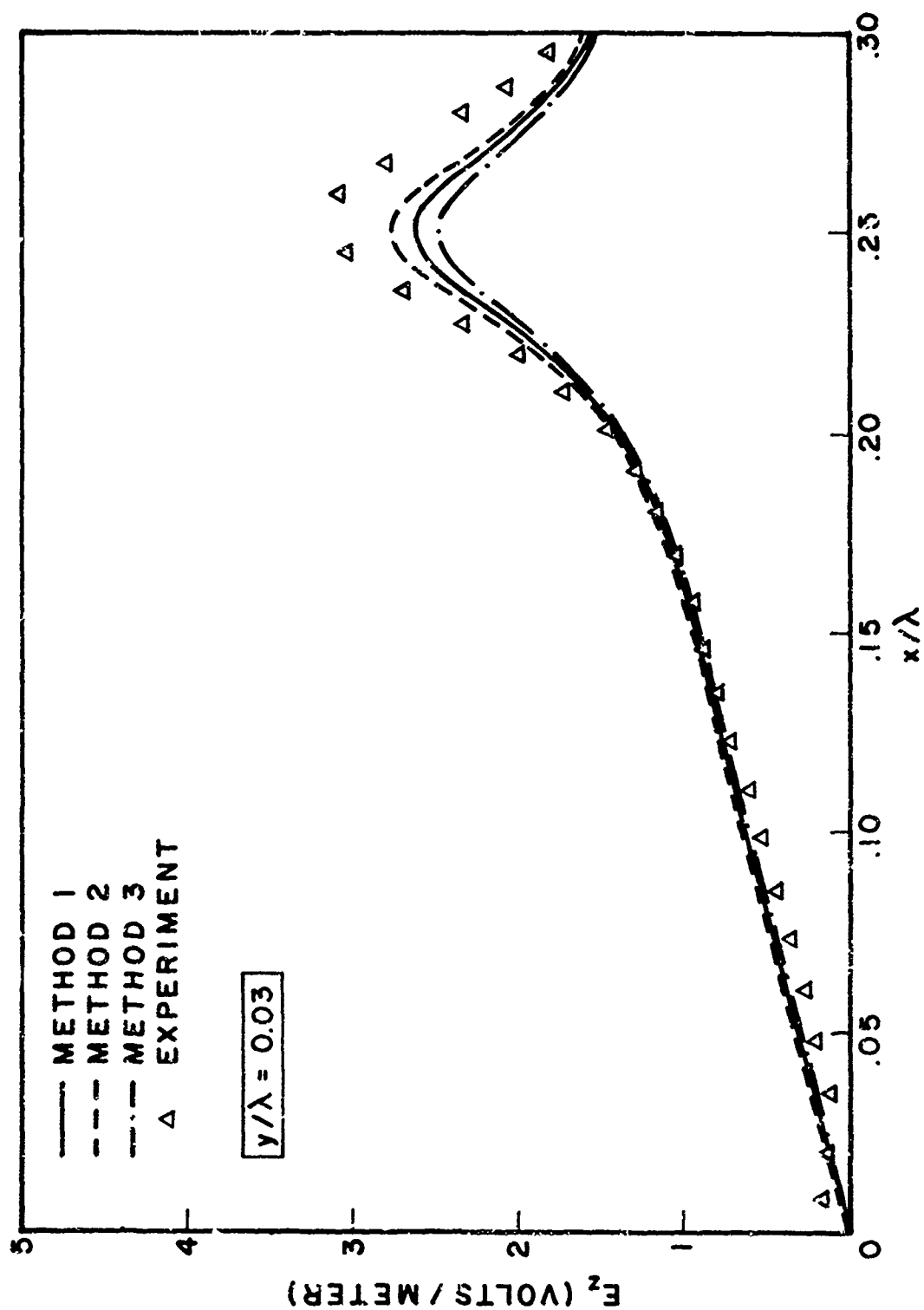


Figure 4-9b Near electric field of a two-element endfire array of resonant dipoles ($l/\lambda = 0.4484$, $d/\lambda = 0.5$, $a/\lambda = 0.00503$, $\Delta l/\lambda = 0.02242$, $\lambda = 3\text{m}$, $V = 1\text{ volt}$), $y/\lambda = 0.03$.

adequately by a cross polarization ratio and by null fill-in. These effects are minimized by choosing transmission line length ℓ_t equal to $n\lambda$, where n is an integer. Departures from ideal dipole performance are significantly increased as dipole length ℓ decreases, gap length d increases, transmission line length ℓ_t increases and current imbalance increases. The cross polarization ratio (defined as $|E_{\phi \max}|/|E_{\theta \max}|$) is minimized by choosing line length ℓ_t equal to $n\lambda$ where n is an integer. Fig. 4-11 shows computed data for the cross polarization ratio and Fig. 4-12 shows a comparison with experimental data. Note the deep null in the cross polarization ratio for $\ell_t/\lambda = 1.0$. More complete information on transmission line interference with dipole performance is given in references [75], [144] and in volume #4 of the RADC Method of Moments Applications Series [113].

4.4 MICROSTRIP APPLICATIONS

Static microstrip problems are ideally suited to treatment by the method of moments and the results may be used for "quasi-TEM" analysis of microstrip. The static capacitance matrix can be computed by three methods associated with the method of moments. In the first, unknown free and bound charges are assumed on all interfaces and simple free-space Green's functions are employed. The basic matrix equation includes boundary conditions on potential over each conductor and boundary conditions on continuity of the normal displacement vector over each dielectric interface. Complex problems involving multiple dielectrics, conductors, and ground planes can be treated by this method. However, the number of unknowns in the matrix equations may be large. This method has been described by Adams and Mautz [49], [40] and was implemented in a computer program by Priebe and Kyle [145]

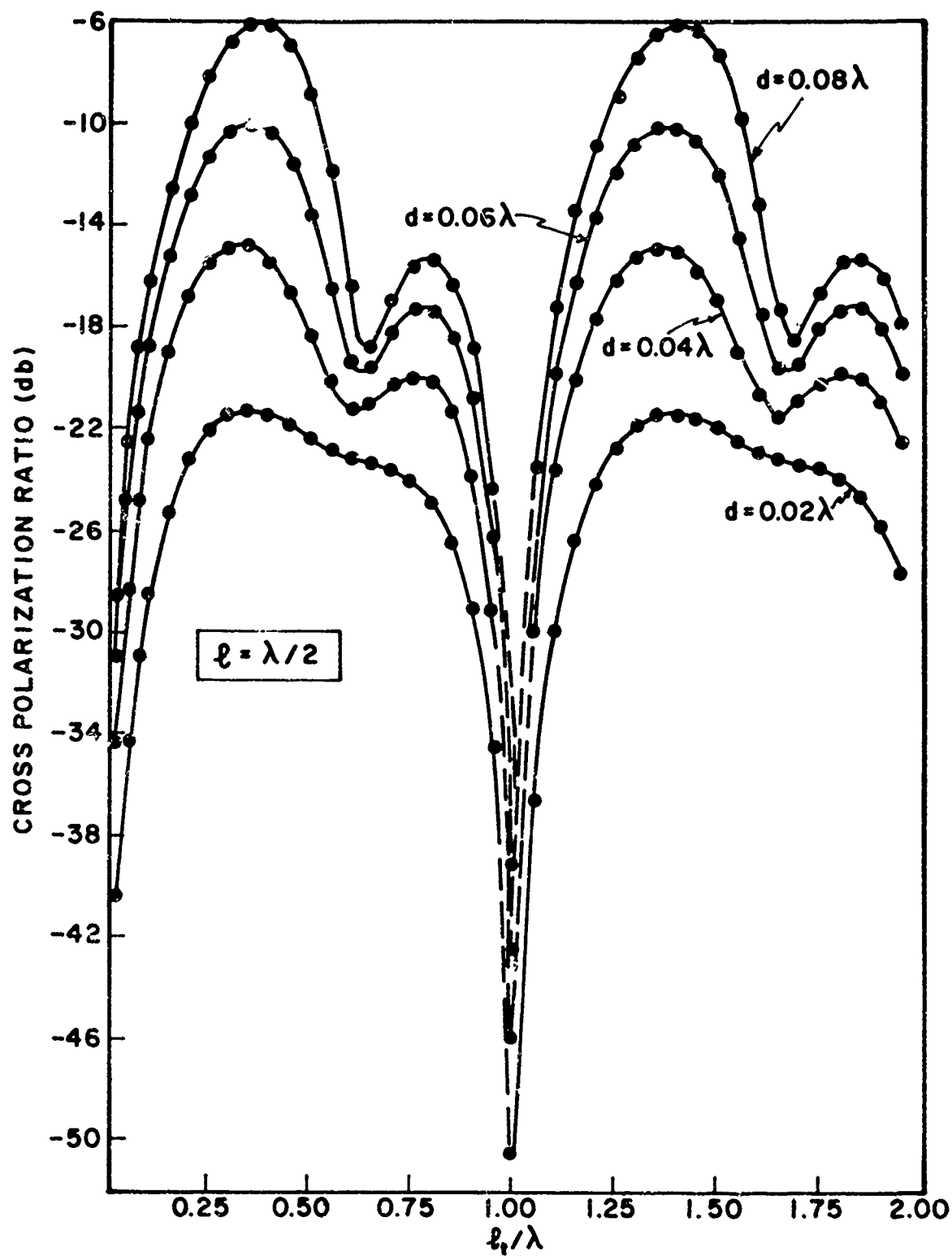


Figure 4-11 Cross polarization ratio of a transmission line and dipole.

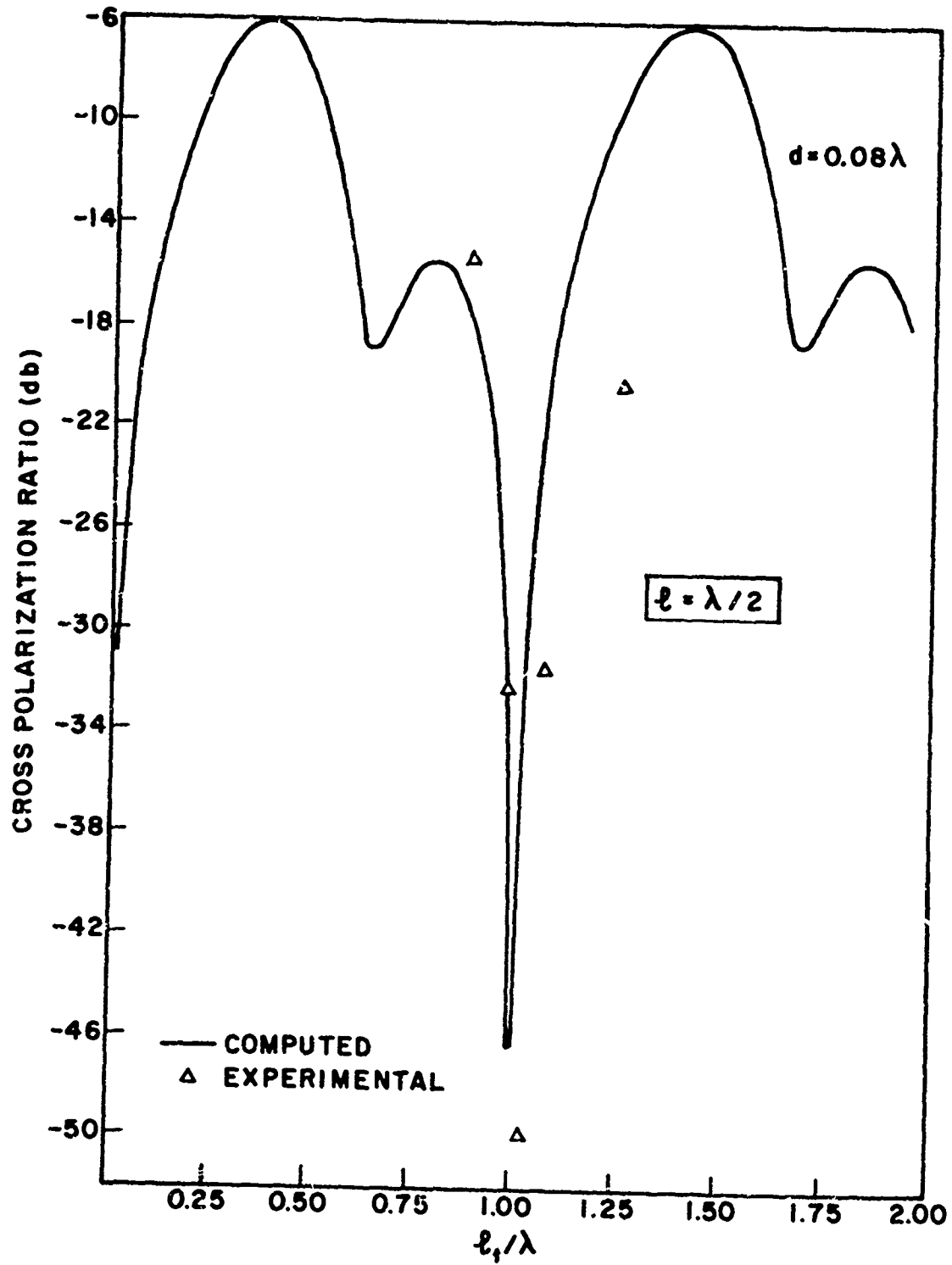


Figure 4-12 Cross polarization ratio of a transmission line and dipole - theory and experiment.

for arbitrary microstrip geometries. Fig. 4-13 shows the capacitance of a dielectric-loaded parallel-plate computed by this method. Results for $\epsilon_r = 1$ are compared with those of Harrington [1] and Reitan [10].

In the second method, a Green's function for the basic microstrip geometry is obtained by images, leading to a simple matrix equation which includes unknown charges only over each conductor. The number of unknowns is considerably reduced over that of method #1, but the variety of problems which can be treated is more limited. The second method also may be used to obtain the values of discontinuity capacitances in microstrip [56], [65]. Fig. 4-14 shows computed values of discontinuity capacitance for a junction between two microstrip lines of different strip widths.

The third method utilizes an integral solution of the microstrip problem and is applicable to multiple dielectric and multiple ground planes [70], [76]. Computation time is relatively lengthy. Fig. 4-15 shows the capacitance of a three-layer microstrip computed by this third method. More complete information on microstrip applications is covered in references [40], [56], [65], [70], [76], and in volume #6 of the RADC Method of Moments Applications Series [146].

4.5 APERTURE COUPLING

Electromagnetic coupling through an aperture in a plane screen can be treated by the method of moments.* The aperture is replaced, using Babinet's principle, with the complementary metal disk, which is in turn replaced by a wire grid of appropriate size and shape. The fields in the aperture, and near and far fields beyond the aperture may then be computed by the method

*The method of moments as used here allows one to treat apertures up to about one square wavelength in area.

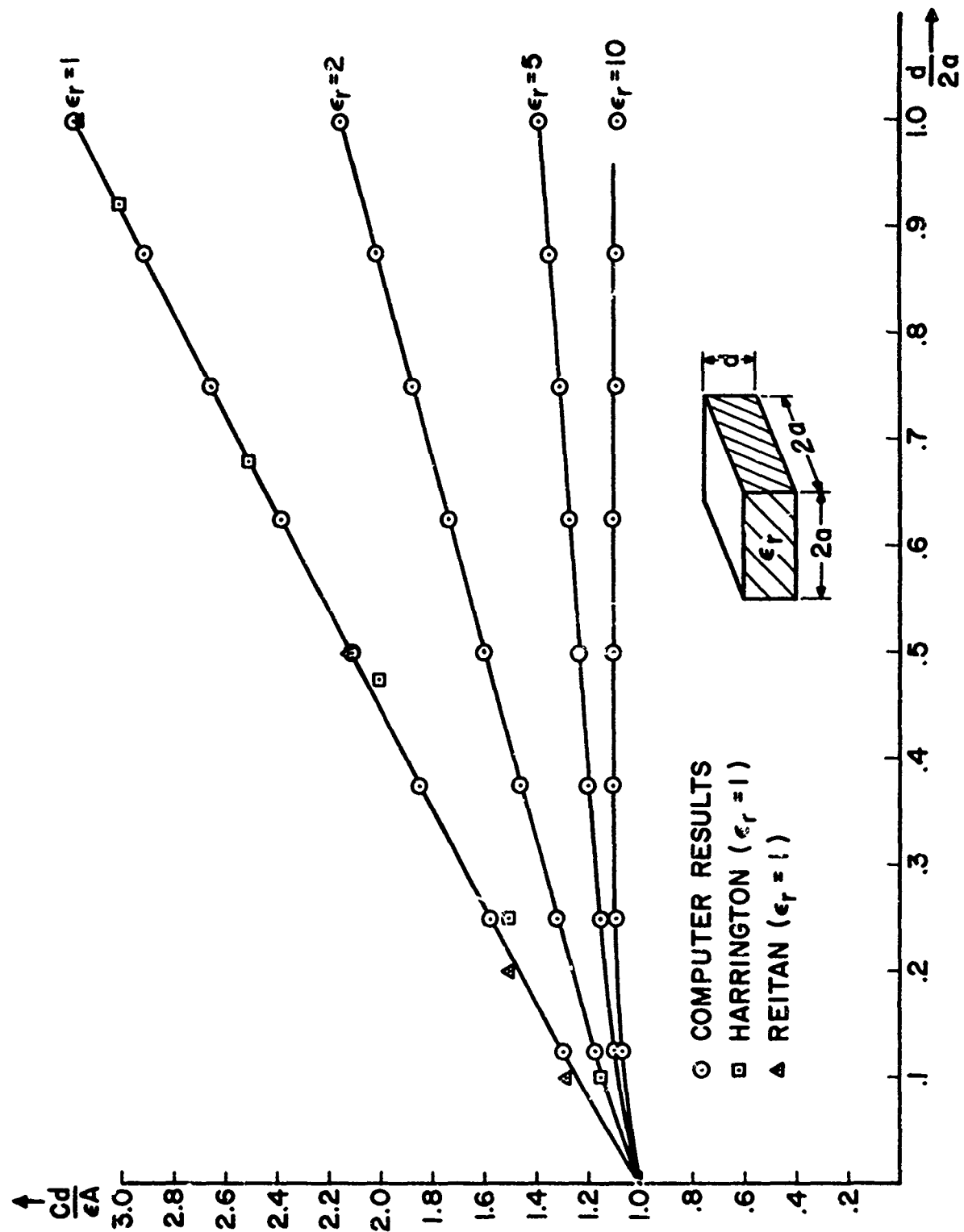


Figure 4-13 Capacitance of a square dielectric-loaded parallel-plate capacitor.

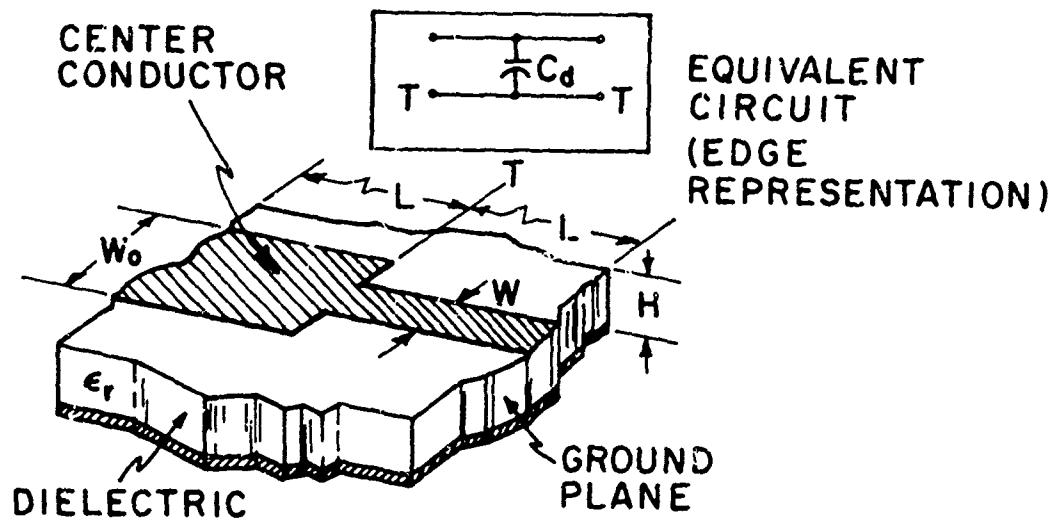


Figure 4-14a A sudden change in width of microstrip.

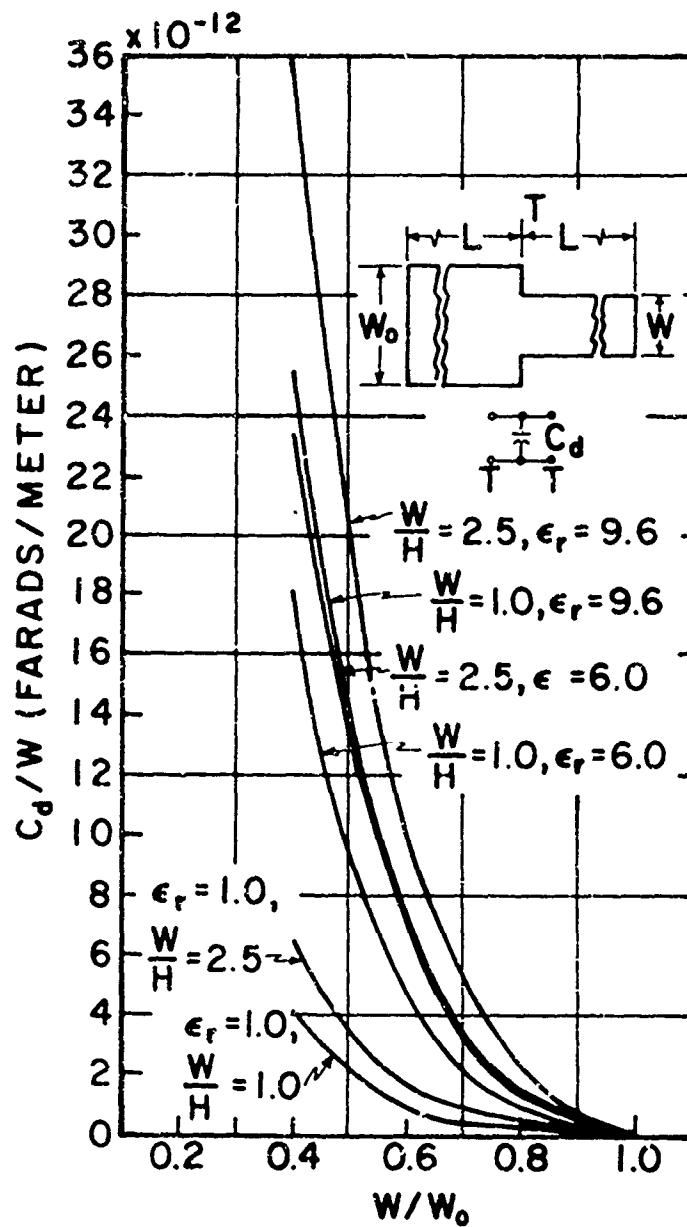


Figure 4-14b Discontinuity capacitance for a sudden change in microstrip width.

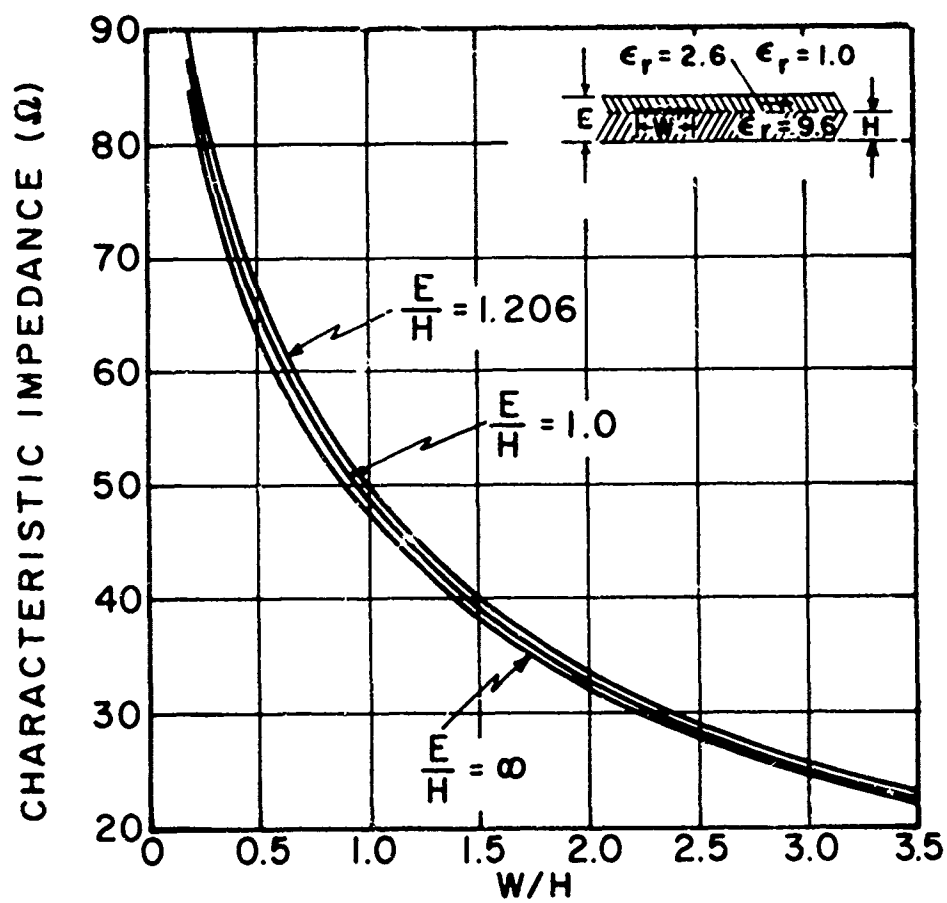


Figure 4-15 Characteristic impedance of a three-layer microstrip.

of moments [147]. Consider a $\lambda/2$ by $\lambda/4$ rectangular aperture in a ground plane. This aperture is replaced by a complementary disk which is wire-gridded as shown in Fig. 4-16. A plane wave polarized in the y-direction is incident normally upon the aperture. Incident field intensity is one volt/meter and frequency is 100 MHz. Fig. 4-16 shows resultant disk current I_x as computed by two different method-of-moments techniques. Fig. 4-17 shows a comparison of computed and experimental data for the y-component of the resultant aperture field. Note that the agreement is very good near the central portion of the aperture. Near the edges the agreement is, of course, less good since fields approach zero or infinity ($E_y \rightarrow \infty$ at $y = 0.125\lambda$ and $E_y \rightarrow 0$ at $x = 0.25\lambda$) and measurement problems arise. Fig. 4-18 shows a near field plot of the electric field in the shadow region beyond the aperture along a circle of radius 0.5λ lying in the x-z plane (see Fig. 4-16). A plane wave polarized in the y-direction is normally incident upon the aperture. The experimental data shown in Figs. 4-16 to 4-18 was taken at Sandia Corporation.

In the method-of-moments technique for aperture coupling, arbitrary angles of incidence and arbitrary polarization can be readily treated. Examples are given in reference [147]. In addition, coupling to wires beyond the aperture may also be treated. More complete information on aperture coupling by the method of moments is available in references [147], [148].

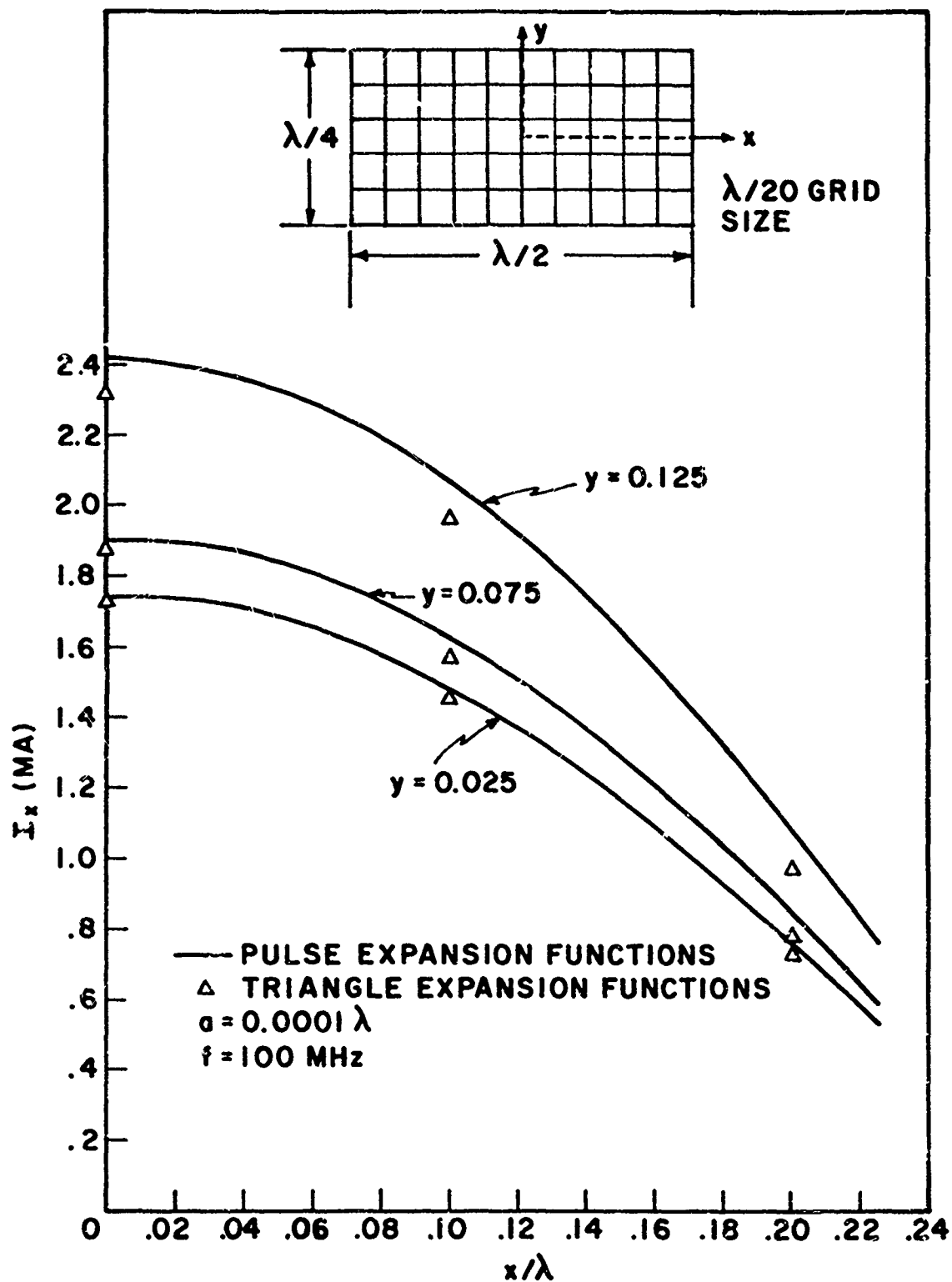


Figure 4-16 Equivalent disk currents on a rectangular grid, due to a plane wave normally incident upon a rectangular aperture in a plane screen, polarized parallel to the short side. ($E_y^i = 1$ volt/meter, $f = 100 \text{ mhz}$).

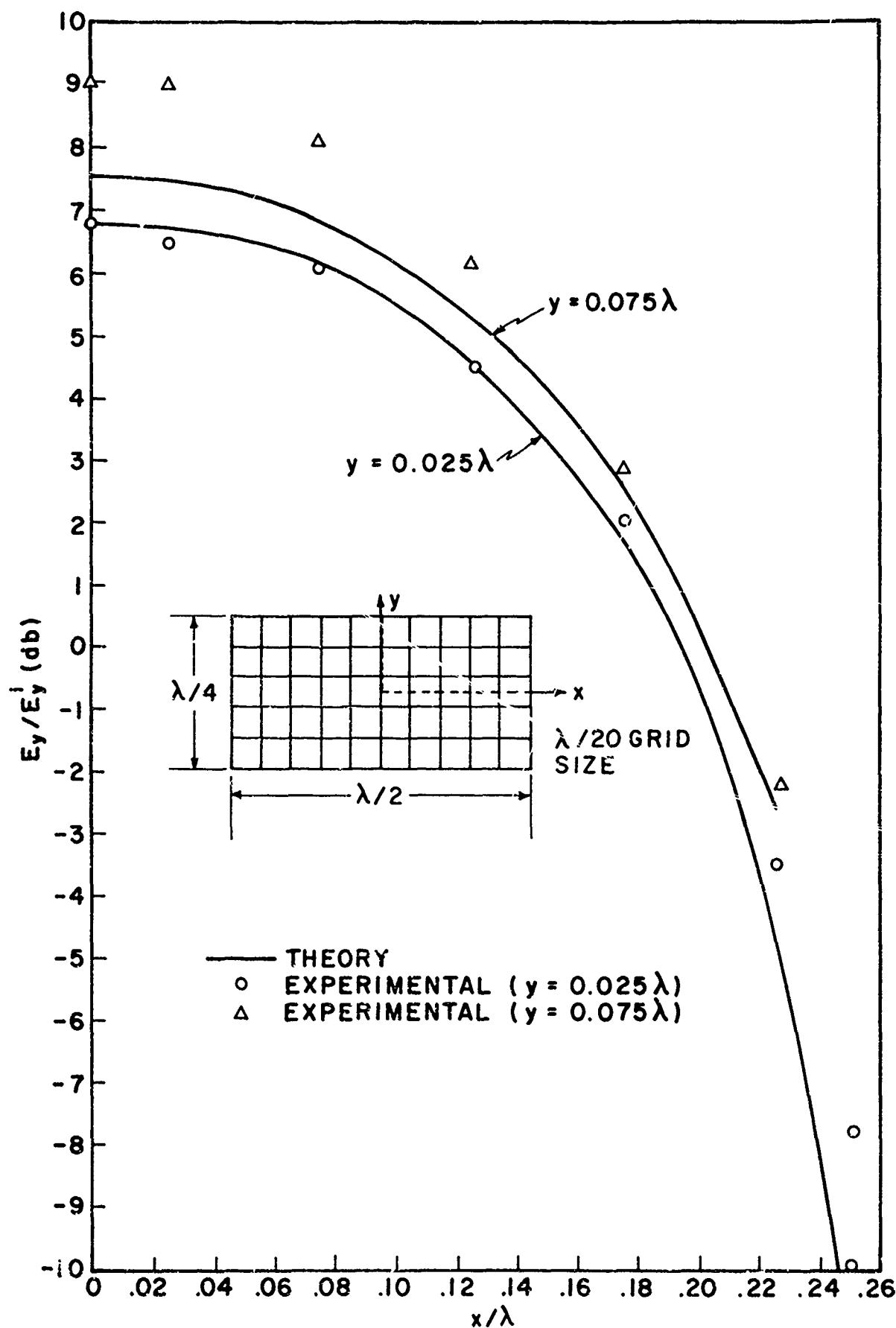


Figure 4-17 Fields in a rectangular aperture in a plane screen, due to a plane wave normally incident, polarized parallel to the short side.

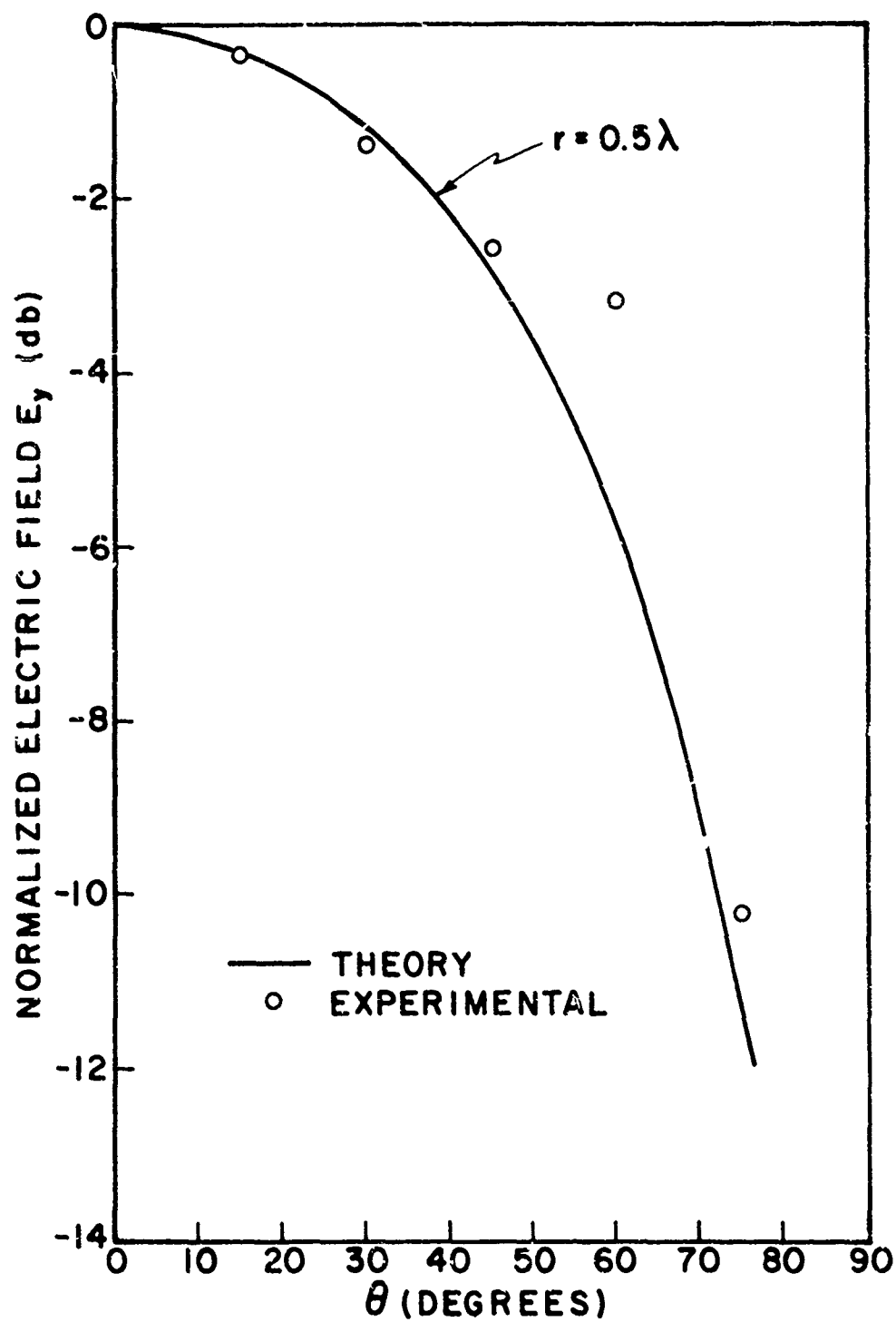


Figure 4-18 Near fields beyond a rectangular aperture in a plane screen, due to a plane wave normally incident, polarized parallel to the short side.

V - CONCLUSIONS

The method of moments has proven to be a successful method for treating a wide variety of problems, many of which could not be treated heretofore with a high degree of accuracy. Examples of such problems are coupling in the presence of parasitics, near field and radiation hazard prediction, transmission line interference, etc. The basis of its application to thin-wire structures is described in this volume. The method is extremely flexible and conceptually simple, and it is applicable in theory to most problems in electromagnetic theory. Illustrative examples of its application are presented.

APPENDIX A - JUSTIFICATION OF THE THIN-WIRE MODEL

In this appendix, the effects of finite radius are considered and an attempt is made to justify the filamentary model used in section 1.2. Fig. A-1 shows a fat dipole with surface currents J_z , J_ϕ , J_ρ . There are several steps that need to be justified: (1) neglect of circumferential currents, J_ϕ , (2) neglect of radial currents, J_ρ , (3) neglect of ϕ variations in longitudinal currents J_z , and (4) replacement of z-directed surface currents with a filamentary model.

The thin-wire model may be explained in several different ways. The results of some classical scattering problems are useful. Consider a plane wave incident upon a conducting cylinder of radius "a" and infinite length (Figure A-2) with its axis parallel to the z-direction. The incident electric field has intensity E_0 and is polarized in either the z direction (parallel to the cylinder axis) or in the y direction (perpendicular to the cylinder axis), as shown in Fig. A-2. The solution of the resultant boundary value problems for the currents and scattered fields are given below [149]:

I ELECTRIC FIELD PARALLEL TO THE CYLINDER AXIS*

Surface Currents

$$J_z = \frac{-2E_0}{\omega\mu\pi a} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{j^{-n} jn\phi}{H_n^{(2)}(ka)} \quad (A-1)$$

*In this appendix, $J_n(x)$, $H_n^{(2)}(x)$ represent Bessel functions of the first kind and Hankel functions of the second kind, respectively, and $J'_n(x)$ and $H_n^{(2)'}(x)$ represent their derivatives with respect to x. n represents the order of the respective functions. γ is Euler's constant (1.781). k is the free space wave number. (ρ, ϕ, z) are the cylindrical coordinates.

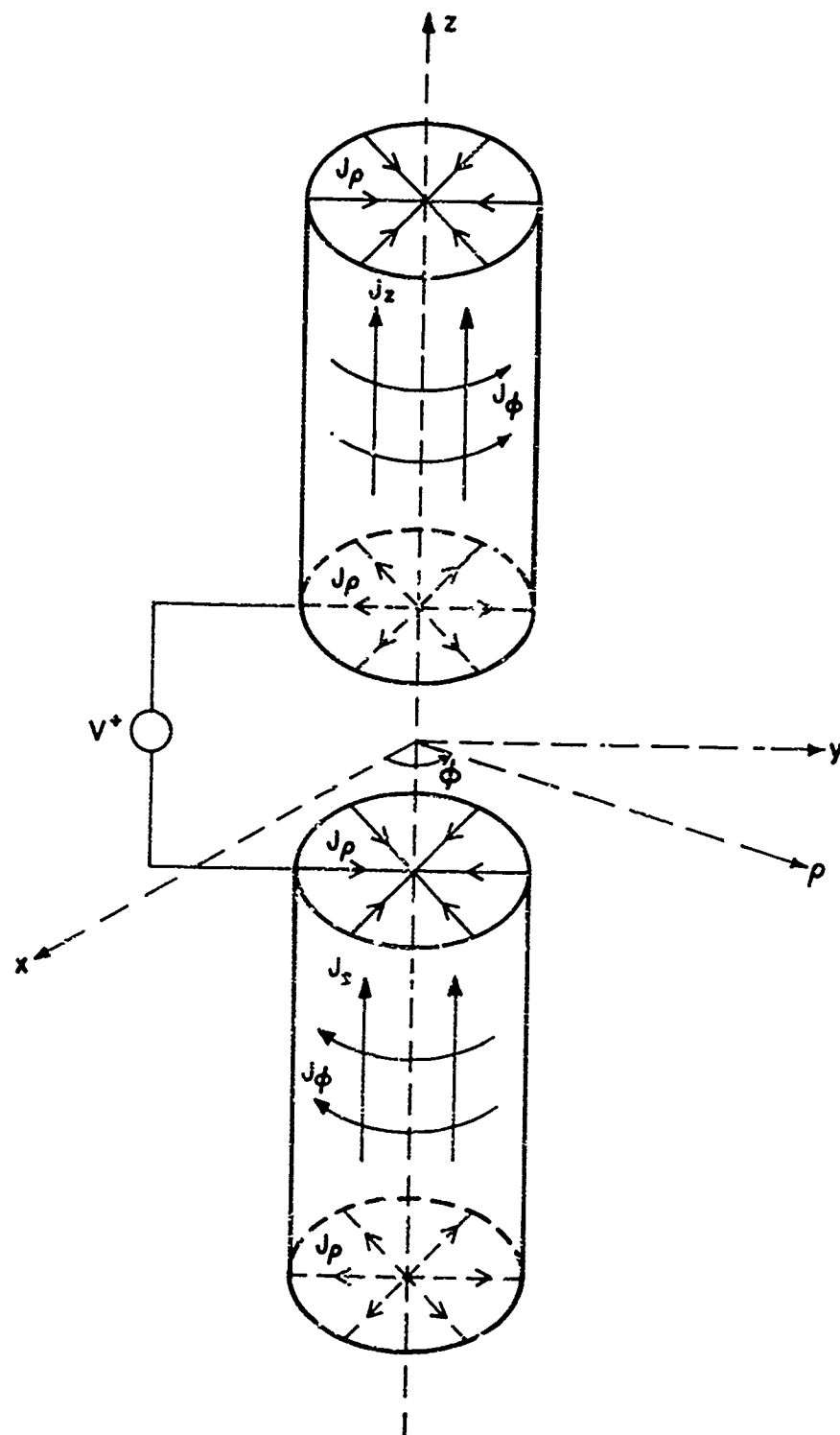


Figure A-1 A fat dipole.

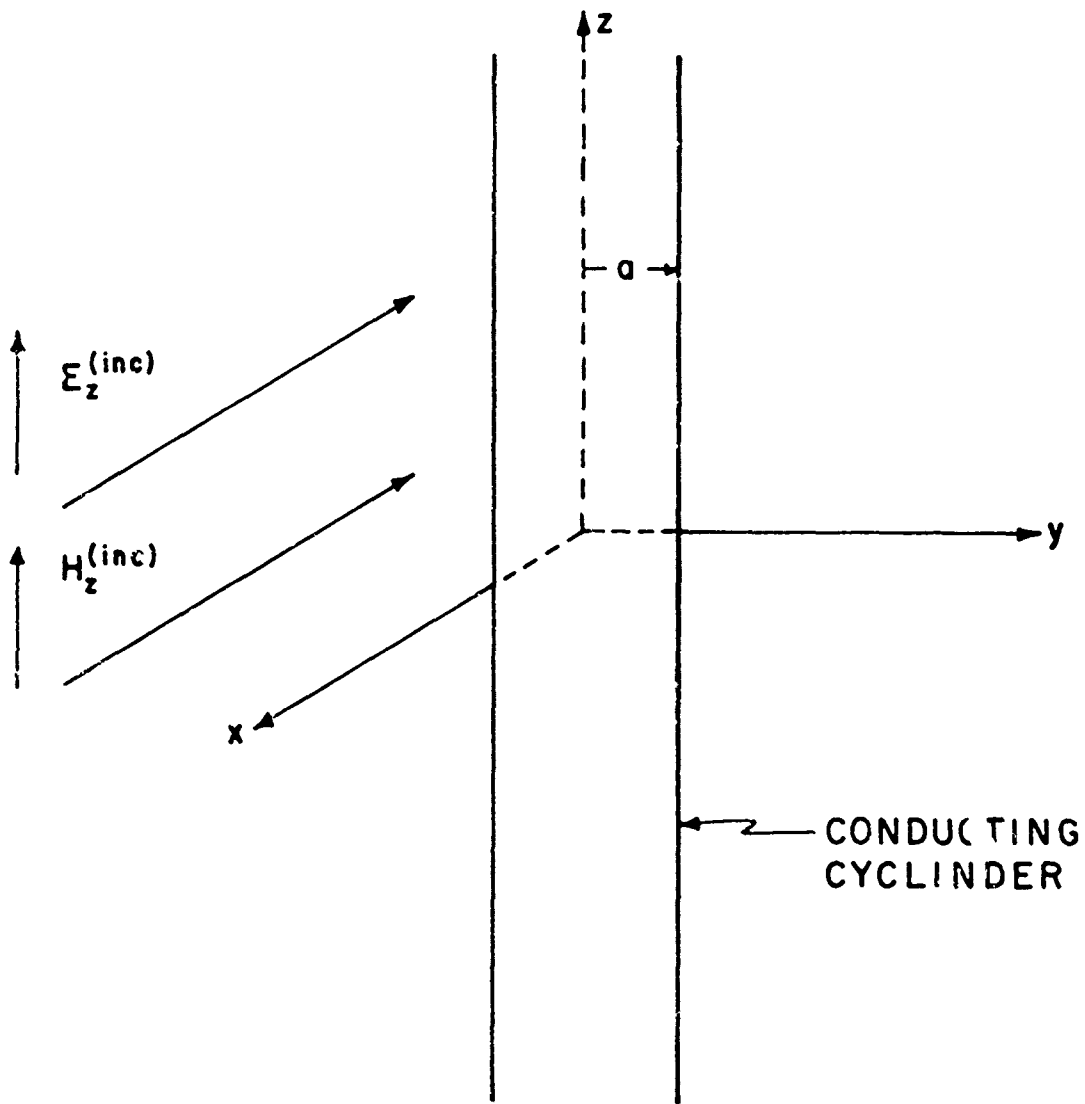


Figure A-2 A plane wave incident upon a conducting cylinder of radius "a" and infinite length.

A study of the small argument forms of $H_n^{(2)}(ka)$ shows that the $n = 0$ term of the infinite series dominates for small ka and thus

$$H_0^{(2)}(ka) \approx 1 - \frac{j2}{\pi} \log\left(\frac{\gamma ka}{2}\right) \approx \frac{-j2}{\pi} \log(.8905 ka) \quad \text{for } (ka \ll 1),$$

where $\log$ indicates the natural logarithm.

$$J_z = -\frac{jE_0}{\omega\mu a} \frac{1}{\log(.8905 ka)} \quad (ka \ll 1) \quad (A-2)$$

$$I_z(\text{total current}) = 2\pi a J_z = \frac{-j2\pi E_0}{\omega\mu \log(.8905 ka)} \quad (ka \ll 1) \quad (A-3)$$

The $n = 0$ term of the current, which becomes the total current for small ka , varies slowly $[1/(\log(.8905 ka))]$ with ka for small ka .

Scattered Fields

Near Fields

$$E_z^s = -E_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{j^{-n} J_n(ka) e^{jn\phi}}{H_n^{(2)}(ka)} H_n^{(2)}(k\rho) \quad (A-4)$$

$$\approx \left(\frac{-j\pi}{2}\right) \frac{E_0}{\log(.8905 ka)} H_0^{(2)}(k\rho) \quad (ka \ll 1) \quad (A-5)$$

Far Fields

$$\lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{E_z^{(s)}}{E_z^{(inc)}} \right| = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi k_0}} \left| \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{J_n(ka)}{H_n^{(2)}(ka)} e^{jn\phi} \right| \quad (A-6)$$

$$\approx \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2k_0}} \frac{1}{\log(.8905 ka)} \quad (ka \ll 1) \quad (A-7)$$

Thus, as $ka \rightarrow 0$, the ϕ -independent currents dominate and the radiated fields become ϕ -independent. Note especially that the near electric field is

proportional to $H_0^{(2)}(k\rho)/\log(.8905 ka)$ (see Eq. (A-5)). The term $H_0^{(2)}(k\rho)$ is proportional to the field of a filament along the z-axis, whereas the term $1/\log(.8905 ka)$ corresponds to the variation of total longitudinal surface current for small ka (See Eq. (A-3)). Thus, for small ka, the radiated fields of a filament are equal to those of the distributed surface current model with the same total current, for $\rho > a$. This is the basis for step (4), the replacement of the surface model with a filamentary model.

II. ELECTRIC FIELD PERPENDICULAR TO THE CYLINDER AXIS

Surface Currents

$$J_\phi = \frac{j2H_0}{\pi ka} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{j^{-n} e^{jn\phi}}{H_n^{(2)'}(ka)} \quad (A-8)$$

where $H_0 = E_0/\eta =$ incident magnetic intensity.

The current induced has a dipole ($\cos \phi$) term as well as a ϕ -independent ($n = 0$) term. Both are important for small ka. The ϕ -independent current represents electrically small loops of electric current (for small ka). Electrically small loops are equivalent to magnetic dipoles and thus the ϕ -independent electric current is equivalent to a magnetic current filament of infinite length.

Scattered Fields

Far Fields

$$\lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{H_z^s}{H_z^i} \right| = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi k\rho}} \left| \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{J_n'(ka) e^{jn\phi}}{H_n^{(2)'}(ka)} \right| \quad (A-9)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\pi(ka)^2}{4} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi k \rho}} (|1 - 2 \cos \phi|) \quad (A-10)$$

as $ka \Rightarrow 0$

Note that both the dipole ($\cos \phi$) and the magnetic filament contribute as $ka \rightarrow 0$. However, the scattered fields are proportional to $(ka)^2$ in contrast to the scattered fields for the parallel case which are proportional to $1/(\log .89 ka)$. In other words, a thin wire may have both longitudinal and circumferential currents. As ka becomes small, the fields radiated by the circumferential component decrease rapidly with ka , whereas the fields radiated by the longitudinal component decrease slowly with ka . This corresponds to the well-known fact that the back-scattering cross section of a thin wire parallel to the incident field varies slowly with wire radius and that it is much greater than that of a thin-wire perpendicular to the incident field.

We can combine the results of the two problems to express the scattering due to arbitrary incident fields with electric field components both parallel and perpendicular to the cylinder axis.

Note that, for arbitrary polarization of the incident fields, both longitudinal and circumferential currents are excited. The fields radiated by the longitudinal currents will always dominate as $ka \Rightarrow 0$, except for the special case where there is no component of $\underline{E}^{(inc)}$ parallel to the cylinder. Furthermore, note that because of the dominance of the $n = 0$ term in (A-1) and (A-4), the variations in ϕ of the longitudinal current are unimportant.

Thus, for plane waves normally incident upon infinite cylinders of small ka , the scattered fields radiated by the longitudinal currents dominate over those radiated by the circumferential currents. Furthermore, the fields

radiated by the ϕ -independent longitudinal currents dominate over those radiated by the ϕ -dependent longitudinal currents. The above statements are valid in both the near and far fields. The only exception to the above statements is the degenerate case where the incident field is exactly perpendicular to the cylinder axis.

In order to apply the above classical analysis to antenna problems involving thin wires, one must generalize the analysis in several respects. One must consider non-normal (oblique) incidence, near field sources rather than plane waves, wires of finite rather than infinite length. Suffice it to say that none of these generalizations completely invalidate the conclusions reached above. However, some of the conclusions are weakened somewhat. For instance, consider two parallel wires extremely close together (a fraction of a wire radius). One may be considered as a near field source for the other. It is possible, for instance, that a current-carrying wire extremely close to a cylinder may excite significant ϕ -dependent longitudinal currents. Even though these currents radiate less effectively than the ϕ -independent longitudinal currents, there are undoubtedly cases where the radiated fields of the ϕ -dependent currents are significant. For instance, if two wires, both electrically small in radius, are placed in extremely close proximity to each other, then one would expect that (a) the currents would concentrate near the portions of the wires closest to each other and (b) the ϕ -dependent longitudinal current would become significant. How close must the wires be to invalidate the assumptions used in typical thin-wire programs? The results of a static analysis provide some guidelines. Fig. A-3 shows two parallel cylinders of infinite length. A voltage is applied between the cylinders. The

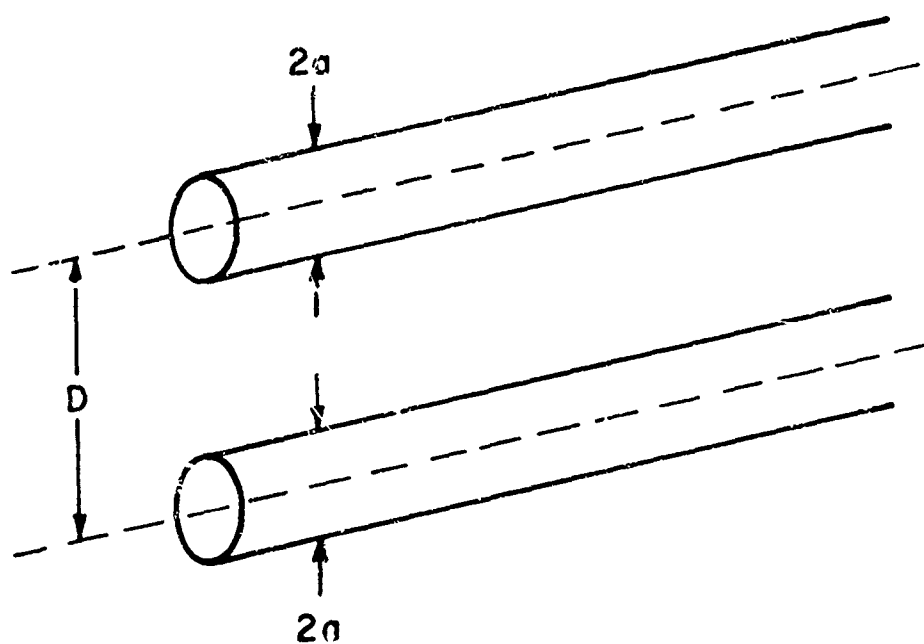


Figure A-3 Two parallel conducting cylinders.

charge distribution on the cylinders is desired. This problem may, of course, be solved by classical methods. For more than two cylinders, or for dielectric-coated cylinders, the method of moments can be used. Clements [150] has treated such problems by the method of moments using sinusoidal expansion functions (i.e., a Fourier series decomposition in ϕ) for the induced charge distribution. The induced charge is represented as follows:

$$J(\phi) = \sum_{n=0}^N A_n \cos n\phi + B_n \sin n\phi$$

For the case shown in Fig. A-3, the origin of the coordinate system may be chosen such that all the B_n 's are zero. Fig. A-4 shows the ratio A_1/A_0 , i.e., the ratio of the coefficient of the dipole term to that of the ϕ -independent term, as a function of $D/2a$. Figs. A-5a,b,c show the relative magnitudes of the Fourier coefficients for the cases $D/2a = 1.05, 1.5, 5.0$ respectively. Note that for very close spacing such as $D/2a = 1.05$ (.1 radius separation), the dipole coefficient exceeds that of the ϕ -independent term. For $D/2a = 1.5$ (one radius separation between cylinders) the dipole coefficient is comparable to that of the ϕ -independent term. For $D/2a = 5.0$ (4 diameters separation), the magnitude of the dipole coefficient is less than 1/6 that of the ϕ -independent term.

The TEM transmission line problem is, of course, directly related to the static problem, and, as a result, the ratios A_n/A_0 of Figs. A-5a,b,c are interpreted directly as the Fourier coefficients of the longitudinal surface current density J_z of the transmission line problem where:

$$J_z = \sum_{n=0}^N A_n \cos n\phi + B_n \sin n\phi$$

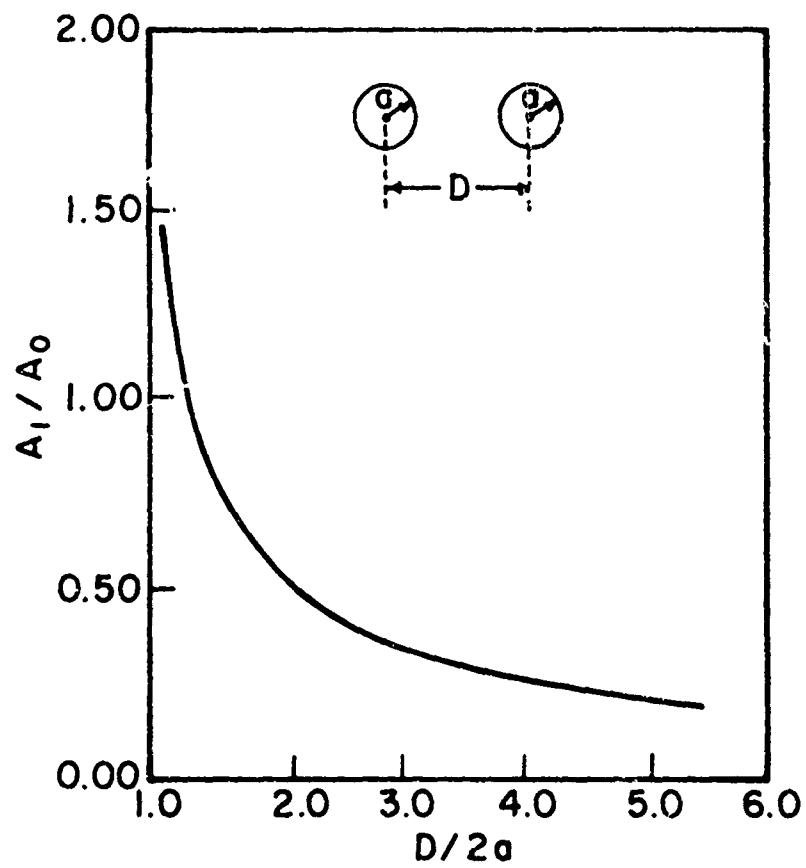


Figure A-4 A_1/A_0 for the two wire problem, as a function of spacing.

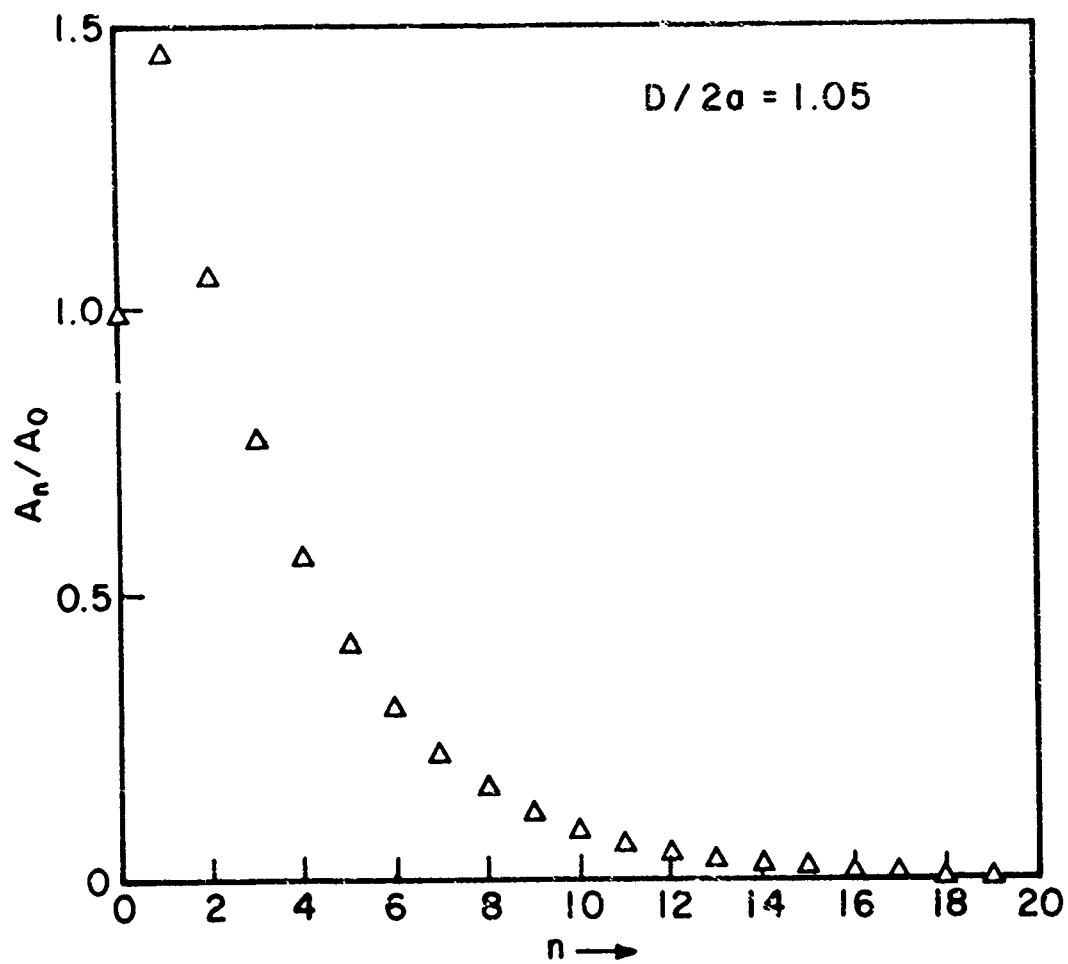


Figure A-5a Fourier coefficients of the two-wire problem ($D/2a = 1.05$).

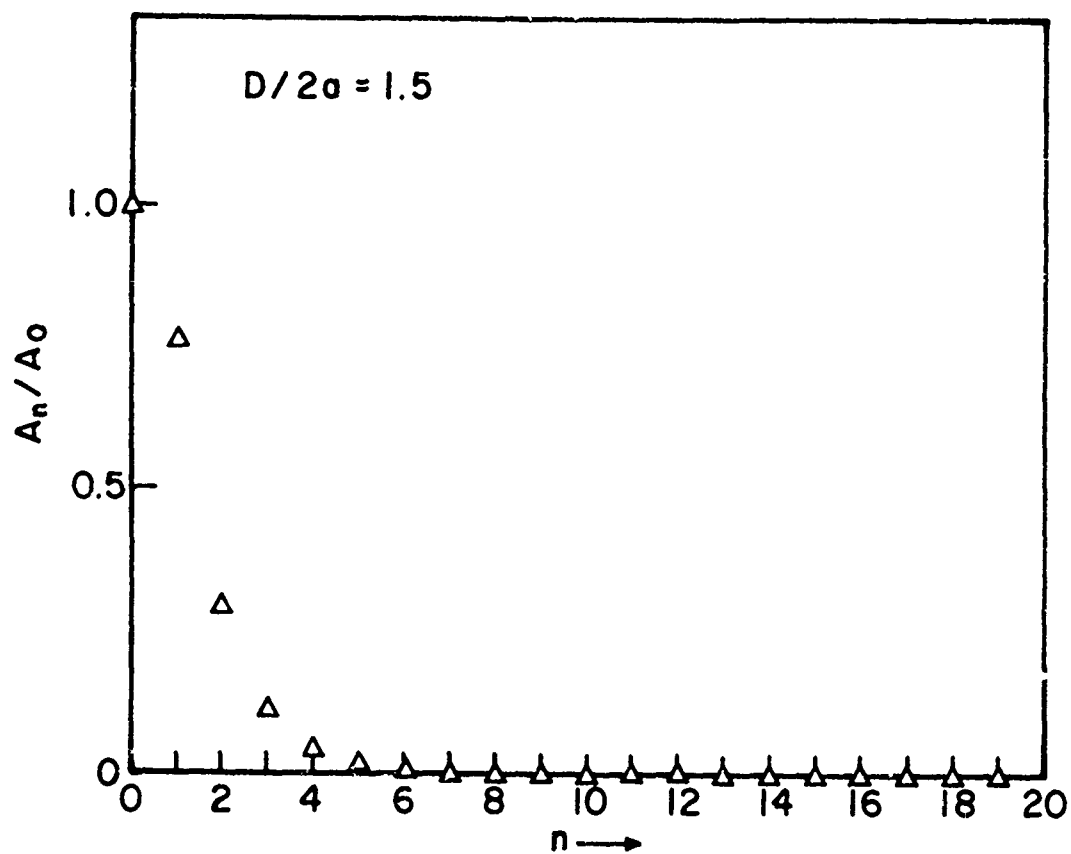


Figure A-5b Fourier coefficients of the two-wire problems ($D/2a = 1.5$).

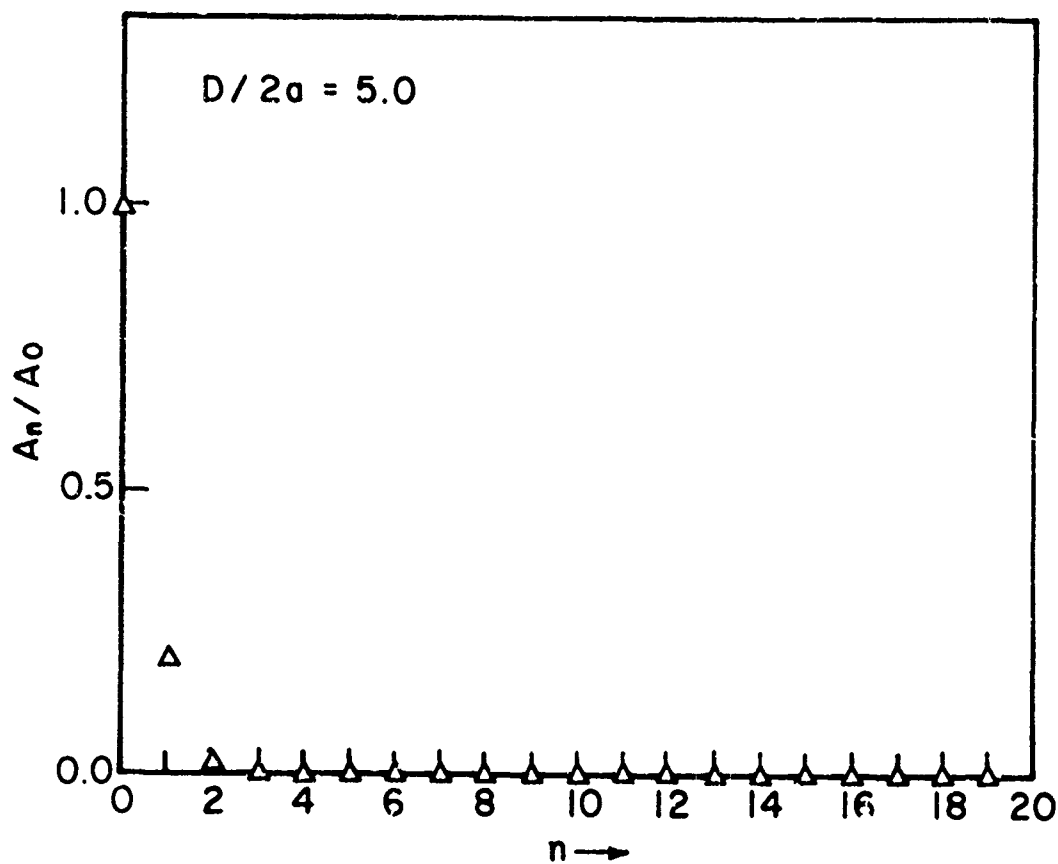


Figure A-5c Fourier coefficients of the two-wire problem ($D/2a = 5.0$).

From this analysis then, one would suspect that the ϕ -variation of the longitudinal current could not be neglected unless the wires were several diameters apart.

In addition to the ϕ -directed and ϕ -dependent currents one must justify the neglect of the ρ -directed current. Consider the four disks of ρ -directed currents (two at the gap and two at the ends of the dipole of Fig. A-1). For small ka , the radial (ρ -directed) currents are ineffective radiators for several reasons. All of the current elements are electrically short and are ineffective radiators for that reason. Furthermore, the directions of the currents on opposite sides of a disk are such as lead to cancellation. Further, the currents on the two gap disks tend to cancel. The currents on the end disks are considerably smaller than those on the gap disks. Note that very close proximity of parallel wires would upset some but not all of these conclusions. Thus, in most problems, there is a high order of cancellation of the effects of the radial currents and they may, therefore, be neglected.

In summary, for thin-wire antennas ($ka \ll 1$), the surface currents J_ϕ and J_ρ may be neglected. The circumferential variation of J_z may be neglected and the resultant uniform surface current J_z may be replaced by a filament of current along the axis of the wire. These conclusions are based upon a consideration of plane wave scattering by a cylinder. For thin wires very close together (within a few radii of each other), these assumptions may be invalid.

APPENDIX B - z_{ij} FOR STRAIGHT PARALLEL WIRES WITH PULSE
EXPANSION FUNCTIONS AND IMPULSIVE WEIGHTS

In this appendix z_{ij} is expressed in terms of the ψ function. Fig. B-1a shows the typical subsections $\Delta\ell_i$, $\Delta\ell_j$ with currents i_i , i_j . z_{ij} may be expressed as follows (see Eq. (1-26)).

$$z_{ij} = - \frac{\Delta\ell_i}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) \int_{\Delta\ell_j} \frac{e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|} dz' \quad (B-1)$$

$$= - \frac{\Delta\ell_i \Delta\ell_j}{j\omega\epsilon} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i^2} + k^2 \right) \psi \quad (B-2)$$

$$\text{where } \psi = \frac{1}{\Delta\ell_j} \int_{\Delta\ell_j} \frac{e^{-jk|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|}}{4\pi|\underline{r}_i - \underline{r}'|} dz'$$

Note that ψ is proportional to the tangential magnetic vector potential A_z at one subsection ($\Delta\ell_i$) due to unit current on another ($\Delta\ell_j$). Fig. B-1a shows the basic geometry.

The origin may be translated to the center of subsection $\Delta\ell_j$ as in Fig. B-1b without loss of generality. For simplification, coordinates (x_i, y_i, z_i) of the field point i are replaced in this appendix with (x, y, z) , (r, θ, ϕ) , (ρ, ϕ, z) in rectangular, spherical, and cylindrical coordinates as shown in Fig. B-1b. Because of rotational symmetry, ψ is independent of ϕ and depends only on ρ, z , and the electrical length $(k\Delta\ell_j)$ of subsection $\Delta\ell_j$. Eq. (B-2) becomes

$$z_{ij} = j\omega\mu\Delta\ell_i\Delta\ell_j\psi - \frac{\Delta\ell_i\Delta\ell_j}{j\omega\epsilon} \frac{\partial^2\psi}{\partial z^2} \quad (B-3)$$

upon replacing z_i with z .

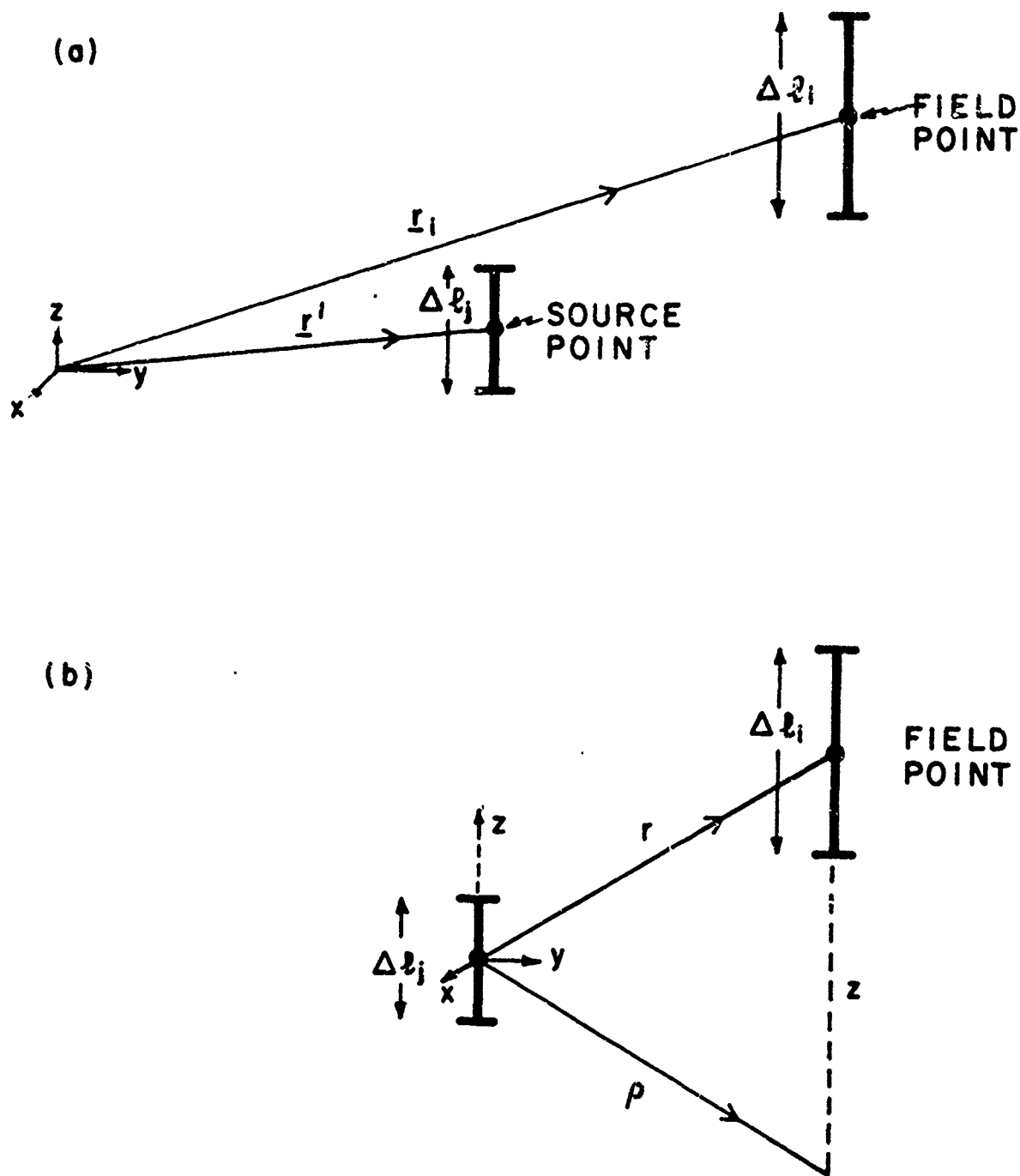


Figure B-1 Typical parallel subsections for thin-wire antenna problems
 (a) general location (b) translation to the origin.

$\partial\psi/\partial z$ may be approximated by finite differences as follows:

$$\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial z} = \frac{\psi(x, y, z + \frac{\Delta z}{2}) - \psi(x, y, z - \frac{\Delta z}{2})}{\Delta z} \quad (B-4)$$

where Δz is a small length increment - not necessarily equal to Δl_1 and where $\psi(x, y, z + \frac{\Delta z}{2})$ is proportional to the potential at point $(x, y, z + \frac{\Delta z}{2})$ with the source subsection Δl_j fixed as in Fig. (B-1b) with center at the origin. Equation (B-4) is written in shorthand notation as

$$\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial z} = \frac{\psi(+\frac{\Delta z}{2}) - \psi(-\frac{\Delta z}{2})}{\Delta z} \quad (B-5)$$

Note that $\partial\psi/\partial z$ may also be evaluated by keeping the field point fixed and shifting the source subsection Δl_j , ie

$$\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial z} = \frac{-[\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}) - \psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2})]}{\Delta z'} \quad (B-6)$$

where $\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2})$ is proportional to the potential at field point 1 with the center of the source subsection (Δl_1) shifted to $(0, 0, \frac{\Delta z'}{2})$ i.e., shifted upwards by an increment $\frac{\Delta z'}{2}$. $\psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2})$ indicates a downward shift.

Eqs. (B-5) and (B-6) are related to the identity

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial z} = -\frac{\partial r}{\partial z'}$$

$$\text{where } r = \sqrt{(x-x')^2 + (z-z')^2 + (y-y')^2}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[\frac{\psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}) - \psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2})}{\Delta z'} \right] \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} [\psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2})] - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} [\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2})] \right] \frac{1}{\Delta z'} \end{aligned} \quad (B-7)$$

$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} [\psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2})]$ represents the derivative of ψ with a shifted source subsection; this may be evaluated by shifting the field point by $\Delta z/2$:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} [\psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2})] = \frac{\psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, +\frac{\Delta z}{2}) - \psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2})}{\Delta z} \quad (B-8)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} [\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2})] = \frac{\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, +\frac{\Delta z}{2}) - \psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2})}{\Delta z} \quad (B-9)$$

where $\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2})$ represents ψ with Δl_j of Fig. B-1b shifted $\frac{\Delta z'}{2}$ upwards and Δl_i shifted $\frac{\Delta z}{2}$ downwards, etc.

Collecting terms:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = & -\frac{j}{\Delta z \Delta z'} [\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, +\frac{\Delta z}{2}) - \psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2}) \\ & - \psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, +\frac{\Delta z}{2}) + \psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2})] \end{aligned} \quad (B-10)$$

Substituting in Eq. (B-3) yields

$$\begin{aligned} z_{ij} = & j\omega\mu\Delta l_i\Delta l_j\psi + \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} \frac{\Delta l_i\Delta l_j}{\Delta z\Delta z'} [\psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, +\frac{\Delta z}{2}) - \psi(+\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2}) \\ & - \psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, +\frac{\Delta z}{2}) + \psi(-\frac{\Delta z'}{2}, -\frac{\Delta z}{2})] \end{aligned} \quad (B-11)$$

Note that Eq. (B-11) involves the evaluation of five different ψ functions with vectors $\underline{r}_{ij}$, $\underline{r}_{ij}(++)$, $\underline{r}_{ij}(+-)$, etc. as shown in Fig. B-2, and corresponding terms $\rho_{ij}(+-)$, $z_{ij}(+-)$ where $z_{ij}(+-)$ represents the distance from shifted field point i to the perpendicular bisector plane of shifted source subsection Δl_j , etc. Each of the different ψ functions may be evaluated by the methods outlined by Harrington [1], [2].

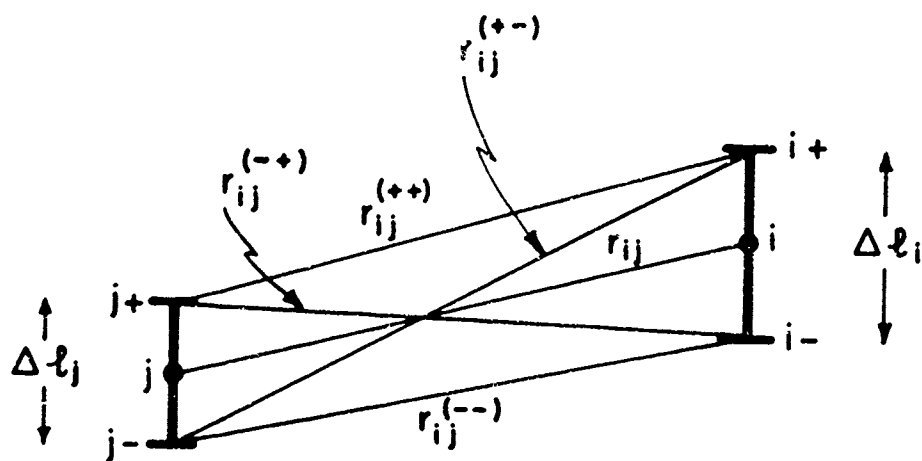


Figure B-2 Distance elements for parallel subsections.

Eq. (B-11) has been derived under a consideration of current distribution alone; the charge distribution is determined by the equation of continuity. Thus pulse current expansion functions lead to impulsive charges at the ends of each subsection.

It is interesting to compare the foregoing result based on Eq. (1-19) and assuming pulse currents and impulsive charges, with one based on Eq. (1-12) and derived under the assumption of pulse expansion functions for both currents and charge [3]. This latter combination is inconsistent mathematically but represents a more realistic charge distribution.

If $\Delta z = \Delta l_1$, $\Delta z' = \Delta l_j$, then Eq. (B-11) becomes

$$z_{1j} = j\omega\mu\Delta l_1\Delta l_j\psi + \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon} [\psi(++) - \psi(+-) - \psi(-+) + \psi(--)] \quad (B-12)$$

which agrees with Eq. (22) of [3]. Thus the two methods (pulse currents and impulsive charges - pulse currents and pulse charges) lead to identical results if the increments $\frac{\Delta z}{2}$, $\frac{\Delta z'}{2}$ used for finite differences are half subsections.

APPENDIX C - SYMMETRY ABOUT THE MAIN DIAGONAL FOR THE MATRICES [z] AND [D]

In general, for the method of moments, the matrices [z] and [D] are not symmetric about the main diagonal, i.e.

$$z_{ij} \neq z_{ji}$$

$$D_{ij} \neq D_{ji}$$

where z_{ij} is the voltage at subsection i due to unit current density on subsection j (in time-harmonic problems) and D_{ij} is the potential at subsection i due to unit charge/unit charge density* on subsection j [40].

If the weighting and expansion functions are identical (Galerkin's method, a variational solution), then the matrices [z] or [D] are symmetrical about the main diagonal.

For parallel current segments Δl_i , Δl_j of equal length, $z_{ij} = z_{ji}$. For parallel segments of unequal length, or for skewed segments, z_{ij} is not necessarily equal to z_{ji} . Similar distinctions apply to charge filaments Δl_i , Δl_j and D_{ij} , D_{ji} functions.

Consider an example from electrostatics consisting of two perpendicular, thin, charged wires, two typical subsections of which are shown in Fig. C-1. Subsections Δl_i and Δl_j are shown with line charge densities λ_i and λ_j and subsection centers i and j respectively. Subsection lengths differ:

$$\Delta l_i = c$$

$$\Delta l_j = b$$

and the separation of subsections is equal to "a". D_{ij} is the potential at

* D_{ij} may be defined as potential due to unit charge or unit charge density. The former definition is used here.

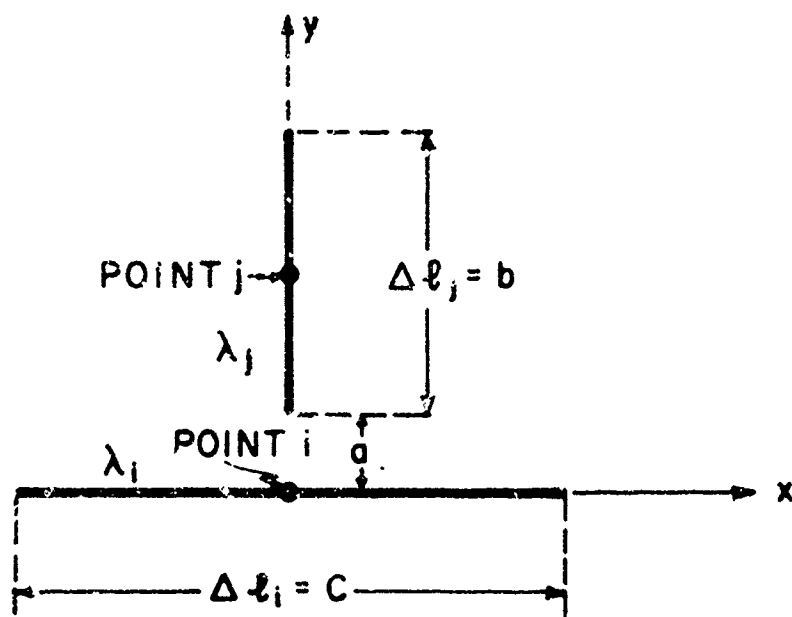


Figure C-7 Two perpendicular, thin, charged wires.

point i due to unit charge on subsection Δl_j and D_{ji} is the potential at point j due to unit charge on subsection Δl_i .

$$D_{ij} = \frac{V_i}{(\lambda_j b)} = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_j b}\right) \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_a^{a+b} \frac{\lambda_j dy'}{y'} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b} \log\left(1 + \frac{b}{a}\right) \quad (C-1)$$

where V_i is the potential at point i due to λ_j .

$$D_{ji} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \int_{-c/2}^{c/2} \frac{dx'}{\sqrt{(x')^2 + (a + \frac{b}{2})^2}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \log \frac{\frac{c}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{c^2}{4} + (a + \frac{b}{2})^2}}{-\frac{c}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{c^2}{4} + (a + \frac{b}{2})^2}} \quad (C-2)$$

where log indicates the natural logarithm.

If $b = c$, then Eq. (C-2) becomes

$$D_{ji} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b} \log \frac{\frac{b}{2} + \sqrt{a^2 + ab + \frac{b^2}{2}}}{-\frac{b}{2} + \sqrt{a^2 + ab + \frac{b^2}{2}}} \quad (C-3)$$

Clearly D_{ij} is not equal to D_{ji} , even for $b = c$. However, as the separation increases (b/a and c/a approach zero), D_{ij} approaches D_{ji} :

$$D_{ij} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 b} \log(1 + b/a) \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \quad (b/a \ll 1) \quad (C-4)$$

$$D_{ji} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \log \frac{\frac{c}{2} + a \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^2 + c^2}{4a^2} + \frac{b}{a}}}{-\frac{c}{2} + a \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^2 + c^2}{4a^2} + \frac{b}{a}}} \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \log \frac{\frac{c}{2} + a(1 + \frac{b}{2a})}{-\frac{c}{2} + a(1 + \frac{b}{2a})}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \log \frac{1 + c/(2a + b)}{1 - c/(2a + b)} \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c} \log [1 + 2c/(2a + b)]$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} \quad (b/a \ll 1, \quad c/a \ll 1) \quad (C-5)$$

Fig. C-2 shows a plot of R (where $R = D_{ij}/D_{ji}$), as a function of b/a , for the special case $b = c$. Note that the matrix $[D]$ is highly asymmetric about the main diagonal for large b/a , and that D_{ij} is indistinguishable from D_{ji} for $b/a < 0.3$. Stewart [128] has shown explicitly that, if pulse weighting and expansion functions are used in this problem, $D_{ij} = D_{ji}$. This is true in general; the Galerkin method always yields matrices symmetric about the main diagonal.

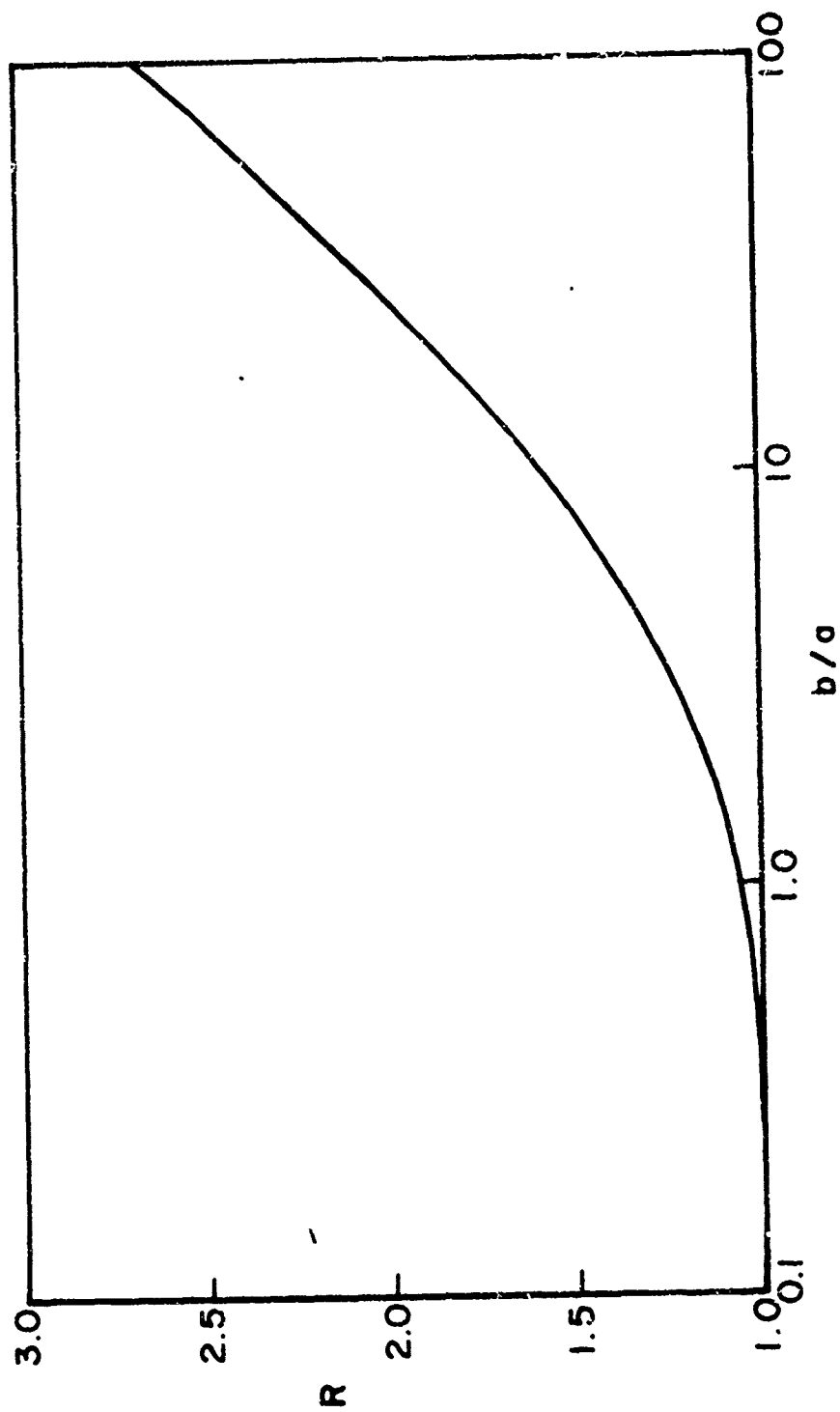


Figure C-2 Ratio R (D_{ij}/D_{ji}) as a function of b/a .

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