

# The Method of Moments for Antenna Simulation

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# 1 Introduction

In this document, we present a derivation of the method of moments (MoM) applied to antenna modelling. It is intended for readers with a background in electromagnetics who want to understand the theory behind the MoM and its application in antenna design.

The primary objective is to simulate the impedance and far-field radiation patterns of antennas made from thin wires, particularly those where the wire diameter is much smaller than the wavelength of operation. These types of antennas are commonly found in consumer electronics and amateur radio systems, among other applications. The document not only lays out the theoretical foundations but also demonstrates the application of the MoM through several practical examples, which are available in the GitHub repository:

- Center-fed half-wave dipoles,
- End-fed half-wave antennas,
- Antennas with parasitic elements, such as Yagi-Uda arrays,
- Loop antennas.

We begin with Maxwell's equations and derive an integral equation for the electric field in free space. We then apply the Method of Moments to discretize this integral equation using triangular basis functions. This process results in a solvable system of linear equations. From the solution, we can calculate our desired quantities, such as impedance and radiated power.

## 2 Electromagnetic Theory

### 2.1 Maxwell's Equations

In a homogeneous region with permittivity  $\varepsilon$  and permeability  $\mu$ , Maxwell's equations describe the electric fields  $\mathbf{E}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}$  and magnetic fields  $\mathbf{H}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$ .

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

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = j\omega\varepsilon\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{J}_0, \quad (2)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho, \quad (3)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0, \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathbf{B} = \mu\mathbf{H}$  and  $\mathbf{D} = \varepsilon\mathbf{E}$ . Throughout the text, we assume a time-harmonic formulation with time dependence  $e^{j\omega t}$ .

## 2.2 Green's Functions

A Green's function is the impulse response of a linear differential equations on a specified domain. Using the superposition principle, the solution of a differential equation can be expressed as a sum of Green's functions. This property will allow us to write an integral equation for the electric field in Section 2.3.

### 2.2.1 Electrostatic Green's Function

Consider the electrostatic Poisson equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi = -\frac{\rho}{\varepsilon}, \quad (5)$$

where  $\rho$  is the charge density. We can apply the Green's function method as outlined above to find the electric potential due to an arbitrary charge configuration. First, we find the impulse response  $G(r)$  such that

$$\nabla^2 G(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{\delta(\mathbf{r})}{\varepsilon}. \quad (6)$$

Expanding the Laplace operator in spherical coordinates, we find

$$\nabla^2 G = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ r^2 \frac{\partial G}{\partial r} \right] = \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial G}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2 (rG)}{\partial r^2}$$

Outside of the point  $r = 0$ , the Dirac delta function is zero, such that

$$\frac{\partial^2 (rG)}{\partial r^2} = 0 \quad r > 0 \quad (7)$$

Integrating this differential equation twice gives us the general solution  $G(r) = a + \frac{b}{r}$ . We must have  $G \rightarrow 0$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , so the coefficient  $a = 0$ . To find coefficient  $b$ , we integrate the differential equation over a sphere of radius  $R$ :

$$\begin{aligned} b \iiint_V \nabla^2 \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) dV &= - \iiint_V \frac{\delta(r)}{\varepsilon} dV = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \\ \oint_{\partial V} \nabla \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} ds &= -\frac{1}{\varepsilon b} \\ \oint_{\partial V} \frac{1}{r^2} ds &= \frac{1}{\varepsilon b} \\ 4\pi &= \frac{1}{\varepsilon b} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the electrostatic Green's function becomes

$$G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon r}, \quad r = |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|. \quad (8)$$

Then, the electric potential due to an arbitrary charge distribution  $\rho(\mathbf{r})$  is

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}) = \iiint G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \rho(\mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \iiint \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} d\mathbf{r}' \quad (9)$$

### 2.2.2 Electrodynamic Green's Function

Similarly, we can derive a Green's function which satisfies the scalar Helmholtz equation. It will be shown later that the electrodynamic equations resemble the (vector) Helmholtz equation. Consider

$$\nabla^2 G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') + k^2 G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = -\delta(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \quad (10)$$

Using the same derivation as before, we can equate the left-hand side to zero for  $r > 0$ .

$$\frac{\partial^2(rG)}{\partial r^2} + k^2(rG) = 0 \quad r > 0 \quad (11)$$

The solution to this differential equation is

$$G(r) = \frac{ae^{-jkr}}{r} + \frac{be^{+jkr}}{r}.$$

By requiring that  $G \rightarrow 0$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , we find that  $b = 0$ . To find coefficient  $a$ , we again integrate over a sphere of radius  $R$ .

$$a \iiint_V \nabla^2 \left( \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \right) + k^2 \left( \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \right) dV = -1$$

The first part of the integral can be tackled by applying the divergence theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_V \nabla^2 \left( \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \right) dV &= \oint_{\partial V} \nabla \left( \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \right) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} ds = 4\pi a^2 \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \right) \right]_{r=R} \\ \lim_{R \rightarrow 0} 4\pi a^2 \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \right) \right]_{r=R} &= -4\pi \end{aligned}$$

The second part of the integral is calculated by inspection:

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_V k^2 \left( \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} \right) dV &= 4\pi k^2 R^2 \int_0^R \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} dr \\ \lim_{R \rightarrow 0} 4\pi k^2 R^2 \int_0^R \frac{e^{-jkr}}{r} dr &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we find that the coefficient  $a = \frac{1}{4\pi}$  and the electrodynamic Green's function is

$$G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = \frac{e^{-jkr}}{4\pi r}, \quad r = |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|. \quad (12)$$

## 2.3 Electric Field Integral Equation (EFIE)

Taking the curl of (1) we obtain

$$\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -j\omega\mu(j\omega\varepsilon\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{J}) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) - \nabla^2\mathbf{E}$$

Gathering the unknown  $\mathbf{E}$  on the left-hand side, and the source terms involving  $\mathbf{J}$  on the right:

$$\nabla^2\mathbf{E} + k^2\mathbf{E} = j\omega\mu\mathbf{J} - \frac{\nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J})}{j\omega\varepsilon} \quad (13)$$

This equation has the vector Helmholtz form with wavenumber  $k = \omega/c = \omega\sqrt{\mu\varepsilon}$ . Using the electrodynamic Green's function derived above, we get an integral equation for the electric field.

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = -j\omega\mu \iiint G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \left[ 1 + \frac{\nabla' \cdot \nabla'}{k^2} \right] \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' \quad (14)$$

Equation (14) is called the *electric field integral equation* (EFIE) and can also be written more compactly in terms of the operator  $\mathcal{L}$ .

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = -j\omega\mu(\mathcal{L}\mathbf{J})(\mathbf{r}), \quad (15)$$

where

$$(\mathcal{L}\mathbf{X})(\mathbf{r}) = \iiint G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \left[ 1 + \frac{\nabla' \cdot \nabla'}{k^2} \right] \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' \quad (16)$$

Let the total electric field be written as a combination of the scattered field (due to an induced current density  $\mathbf{J}$ ) and the incident field:  $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}^s + \mathbf{E}^i$ . At the boundary of a conducting surface  $S$ , the following holds:

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times [\mathbf{E}^i(\mathbf{r}) + \mathbf{E}^s(\mathbf{r})] = 0, \quad (17)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r})$  is the surface normal at  $\mathbf{r} \in S$ . Thus, we can rewrite the “surface” integral equation as

$$-\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{E}^i(\mathbf{r}) = \hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times -j\omega\mu(\mathcal{L}\mathbf{J})(\mathbf{r}) \quad (18)$$

Finally, we can drop the  $\hat{\mathbf{n}} \times$  and implicitly assume that the vectorial quantities are tangential to the conducting surface.

$$\mathbf{E}^i(\mathbf{r}) = j\omega\mu(\mathcal{L}\mathbf{J})(\mathbf{r}) \quad (19)$$

Observe that this equation is very similar to the original EFIE in (14), but with a reversed sign. The domain of integration is now restricted to the conducting surfaces.

## 3 Method of Moments

### 3.1 Discretization

Starting from the EFIE, we expand the unknown current distribution  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r})$  into a series of basis functions:

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{n=1}^N I_n \mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}), \quad (20)$$

where  $I_n$  are the unknown coefficients representing the nodal currents, and  $\mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r})$  are the vector basis functions. Many choices of basis are possible, but we will use the triangular basis functions shown in Figure 1. The orientation of the basis vectors  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_m$  is further discussed in Section 3.3.

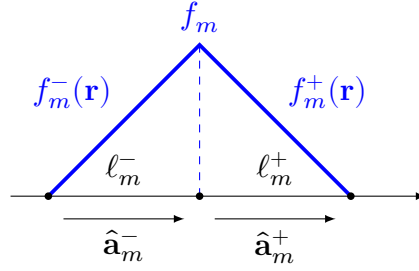


Figure 1: Triangular basis function

Substituting (20) into the surface EFIE (19), the  $\mathcal{L}$  operator now operates on the (known) basis functions.

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = j\omega\mu \sum_{n=1}^N I_n (\mathcal{L}\mathbf{f}_n)(\mathbf{r}) \quad (21)$$

Next, we can test (21) with the same basis functions  $\mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r})$  with  $m = 1, \dots, N$ .

$$\langle \mathbf{f}_m, \mathbf{E} \rangle = j\omega\mu \sum_{n=1}^N I_n \langle \mathbf{f}_m, \mathcal{L}\mathbf{f}_n \rangle \quad m = 1, \dots, N \quad (22)$$

This results in a dense, square  $N \times N$  system of equations.

$$\{V\} = [Z] \{I\}, \quad (23)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned}
V_m &= \int_{f_m} \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r} \\
Z_{mn} &= j\omega\mu \int_{f_m} \int_{f_n} \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}') G_k(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' d\mathbf{r} \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{j\omega} \int_{f_m} \int_{f_n} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}) \nabla' \cdot \mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}') G_k(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' d\mathbf{r}
\end{aligned}$$

For ease of notation and to clarify the physical role each integral term plays, we redefine the impedance contribution in terms of the vector potential  $\mathbf{A}$  and the scalar potential  $\Phi$ .

$$Z_{mn} = j\omega\mu A_{mn} - \frac{j}{\omega\epsilon} \Phi_{mn} = jk\eta_0 \left( A_{mn} - \frac{1}{k^2} \Phi_{mn} \right), \quad (24)$$

where

$$A_{mn} = \int_{f_m} \int_{f_n} \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}') G_k(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' d\mathbf{r} \quad (25)$$

$$\Phi_{mn} = \int_{f_m} \int_{f_n} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}) \nabla' \cdot \mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}') G_k(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' d\mathbf{r} \quad (26)$$

### 3.1.1 Quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} I(x) dx \approx \sum_{p=1}^M w_p I(x_p), \quad (27)$$

with quadrature weights  $w_p$  and quadrature points  $x_p$ . In the Julia code, the Gauss-Legendre quadrature is used.

### 3.1.2 Non-Self Terms

The basis and testing functions are defined on (two-dimensional) segments of thin wire in three-dimensional space. Considering a pair of non-overlapping basis functions  $n, m$ , we can calculate the integrals numerically by applying a quadrature rule to both integrals. Because each shape function consists of two parts (for triangular basis functions), we can split the contributions into four parts.

$$A_{mn} = A_{mn}^{++} + A_{mn}^{+-} + A_{mn}^{-+} + A_{mn}^{--} \quad (28)$$

$$\Phi_{mn} = \Phi_{mn}^{++} + \Phi_{mn}^{+-} + \Phi_{mn}^{-+} + \Phi_{mn}^{--} \quad (29)$$

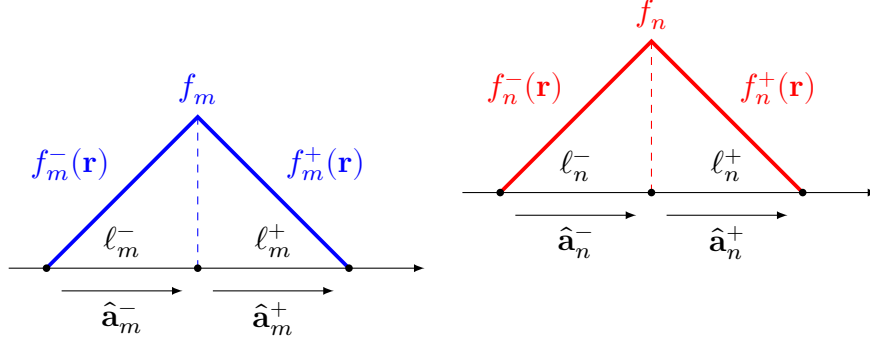


Figure 2: Definition of (non-overlapping) basis functions.

The contributions to the vector potential are derived from (25). The superscripts refer to the positive and negative elements belonging to the basis functions  $m$  and  $n$  as defined in Figure 2.

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_{mn}^{++} &= \hat{\mathbf{a}}_m^+ \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n^+ \frac{\ell_m^+ \ell_n^+}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q f_m(\mathbf{r}_p^+) f_n(\mathbf{r}_q^+) G(\mathbf{r}_p^+, \mathbf{r}_q^+) \\
 A_{mn}^{+-} &= \hat{\mathbf{a}}_m^+ \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n^- \frac{\ell_m^+ \ell_n^-}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q f_m(\mathbf{r}_p^+) f_n(\mathbf{r}_q^-) G(\mathbf{r}_p^+, \mathbf{r}_q^-) \\
 A_{mn}^{-+} &= \hat{\mathbf{a}}_m^- \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n^+ \frac{\ell_m^- \ell_n^+}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q f_m(\mathbf{r}_p^-) f_n(\mathbf{r}_q^+) G(\mathbf{r}_p^-, \mathbf{r}_q^+) \\
 A_{mn}^{--} &= \hat{\mathbf{a}}_m^- \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n^- \frac{\ell_m^- \ell_n^-}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q f_m(\mathbf{r}_p^-) f_n(\mathbf{r}_q^-) G(\mathbf{r}_p^-, \mathbf{r}_q^-)
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for the scalar potential contributions. Here, we can pre-calculate the divergence of the basis functions, which is constant over the element (for triangular basis functions).

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}_m^+(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{-1}{\ell_m^+} \quad \mathbf{r} \in \text{supp}(f_m^+) \quad (30)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}_m^-(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{+1}{\ell_m^-} \quad \mathbf{r} \in \text{supp}(f_m^-) \quad (31)$$



Therefore, the scalar potential terms become

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi_{mn}^{++} &= \frac{-1}{\ell_m^+} \frac{-1}{\ell_m^+} \frac{\ell_m^+ \ell_n^+}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q G(\mathbf{r}_p^+, \mathbf{r}_q^+) \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q G(\mathbf{r}_p^+, \mathbf{r}_q^+) \\
\Phi_{mn}^{+-} &= -\frac{1}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q G(\mathbf{r}_p^+, \mathbf{r}_q^-) \\
\Phi_{mn}^{-+} &= -\frac{1}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q G(\mathbf{r}_p^-, \mathbf{r}_q^+) \\
\Phi_{mn}^{--} &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q G(\mathbf{r}_p^-, \mathbf{r}_q^-)
\end{aligned}$$

### 3.1.3 Self Terms

If the basis functions  $n, m$  overlap (see Figure 3), then we must treat the singularity that arises in the integral of the Green's function. We can do this by evaluating the inner integral analytically and the outer integral numerically using an  $M$ -point quadrature rule. Assume that the singularity is in the  $++$  direction (only possible when  $m = n$ ). For the vector potential term,

$$\begin{aligned}
A_{mn}^{++} &= \hat{\mathbf{a}}_m^+ \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n^+ \frac{\ell_m^+}{2} \sum_{p=1}^M w_p f_m(\mathbf{r}_p^+) \int_{f_n} f_n(\mathbf{r}') G(\mathbf{r}_p^+, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' \\
&= \hat{\mathbf{a}}_m^+ \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n^+ \frac{\ell_m^+}{2} \sum_{p=1}^M w_p f_m(\mathbf{r}_p^+) S_1(\mathbf{r}_p^+)
\end{aligned}$$

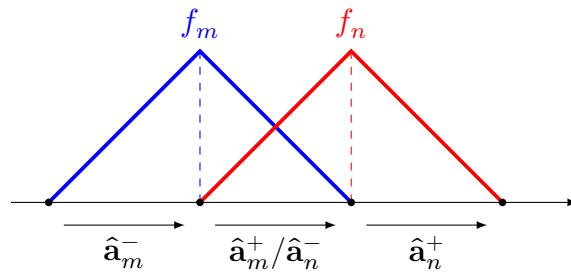


Figure 3: Definition of (overlapping) basis functions.

And for the scalar potential term,

$$\Phi_{mn}^{++} = \frac{\ell_m^+}{2} \sum_{p=1}^M w_p \frac{1}{\ell_m^+ \ell_n^+} \int_{f_n} G(\mathbf{r}_p^+, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' = \frac{\ell_m^+}{2} \sum_{p=1}^M w_p S_2(\mathbf{r}_p^+)$$

where we define  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  as follows

$$S_1(\mathbf{r}) = \int_{f_n} f_n(\mathbf{r}') G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' \quad (32)$$

$$S_2(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{s^2} \int_{f_n} G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' \quad (33)$$

where  $s$  is the length of the segment containing the singularity.

### 3.1.4 Thin-Wire Approximation

We apply the thin-wire approximation to find an analytical expression for the integrals  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . That is, we assume that the one-dimensional elements are, in fact, wires with a radius  $a$ , which is small compared to the length of the element  $\ell_n$  and the wavelength  $\lambda$ . We redefine the distance between  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{r}'$  as

$$|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'| = \sqrt{(r - r')^2 + a^2}$$

Then, the two integrals can be evaluated analytically. The detailed derivation is presented in Gibson, 2021.

$$S_1(x, s) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{s} \sqrt{a^2 + (x - s)^2} - \frac{1}{s} \sqrt{a^2 + x^2} + \frac{x}{s} \frac{\log(x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2})}{x - s + \sqrt{a^2 + (x - s)^2}} - \frac{jks}{2} \right] \quad (34)$$

$$S_2(x, s) = \frac{1}{4\pi s^2} \left[ \frac{\log(x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2})}{x - s + \sqrt{a^2 + (x - s)^2}} - jks \right] \quad (35)$$

## 3.2 Practical Element-Wise Matrix Assembly

To assemble the system matrix equation (23), we loop over all pairs of nodal basis functions and calculate the contributions of each part using (28), (29). A more practical method of matrix assembly is to loop over all pairs of elements, each with pre-defined basis functions (see Figure 4).

Each element contributes to four locations in the system matrix ( $[m_1, n_1]$ ,  $[m_1, n_2]$ ,  $[m_2, n_1]$ ,  $[m_2, n_2]$ ), allowing the local contribution to be written conveniently as a  $2 \times 2$  matrix. This way of constructing the local contribution is very similar to the way this is done in the finite element method.

$$A_{mn} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}_m \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n \frac{\ell_m \ell_n}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q \begin{bmatrix} f_{m,p}^{(1)} f_{n,q}^{(1)} & f_{m,p}^{(1)} f_{n,q}^{(2)} \\ f_{m,p}^{(2)} f_{n,q}^{(1)} & f_{m,p}^{(2)} f_{n,q}^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} G(\mathbf{r}_p, \mathbf{r}_q) \quad (36)$$

$$\Phi_{mn} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{q=1}^M w_p w_q \begin{bmatrix} +1 & -1 \\ -1 & +1 \end{bmatrix} G(\mathbf{r}_p, \mathbf{r}_q) \quad (37)$$

where  $f_{m,p}^{(1)}$  is basis function  $f_m^{(1)}$ , evaluated at  $\mathbf{r}_p$ , etc.

It is now very easy to determine whether the self or non-self terms must be used since there is only an overlap of basis functions when elements  $m$  and  $n$  are the same, i.e.,  $m = n$ . The self-terms become

$$A_{mm} = \frac{\ell_m}{2} \sum_{p=1}^M w_p \begin{bmatrix} f_{m,p}^{(1)} & f_{m,p}^{(1)} \\ f_{m,p}^{(2)} & f_{m,p}^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} S_1(\mathbf{r}_p) \quad (38)$$

$$\Phi_{mm} = \frac{\ell_m}{2} \sum_{p=1}^M w_p \begin{bmatrix} +1 & -1 \\ -1 & +1 \end{bmatrix} S_2(\mathbf{r}_p) \quad (39)$$

### 3.3 Boundary Conditions

Two boundary conditions arise from the equation of charge conservation:

1. The basis vectors  $\mathbf{a}_n$  should be oriented such that (40) holds at every node.
2. A condition  $I = 0$  must be imposed on the end-points of every segment, as this is the only way to enforce (40).

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} = 0 \quad (40)$$

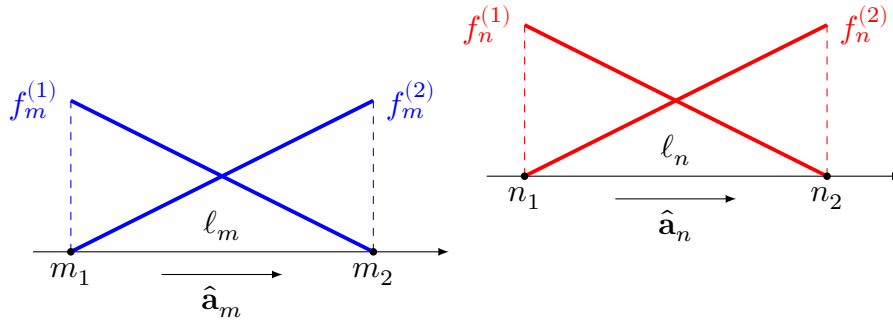


Figure 4: Definition of element-local basis functions.

### 3.4 Post-processing

#### 3.4.1 Antenna impedance

To calculate the impedance seen by a source embedded in segment  $e$ , with nodes  $n_1, n_2$ , we make use of the current coefficient vector  $\{I\}$ . The impedance is defined as

$$Z = \frac{V_{src}}{I_{src}}, \quad (41)$$

where  $V_{src}$  is the known source voltage and  $I_{src}$  is the solved current averaged over segment  $e$ :

$$I_{src} = \frac{1}{2} (I[n_1] + I[n_2])$$

#### 3.4.2 Far-field radiation

The far-field radiation pattern can also be derived from the solved current vector. The EFIE can be simplified by assuming that the  $1/r$  are dominant and that higher-order terms have negligible amplitude in the far field.

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = -j\omega\mu \int \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}') G_k(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}' \quad (42)$$

This expression can be further simplified by considering that  $\mathbf{r} \gg \mathbf{r}'$ , such that

$$|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'| = \begin{cases} r & \text{for amplitude variations} \\ r - \mathbf{r}' \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} & \text{for phase variations} \end{cases} \quad (43)$$

where  $r = |\mathbf{r}|$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|$ . Applying (43) to (42) yields

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = j\omega\mu \frac{e^{-jk r}}{4\pi r} \int ((\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}'))\hat{\mathbf{r}} - \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}')) e^{jk\mathbf{r}' \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}} d\mathbf{r}' \quad (44)$$

Applying the same discretization procedure,

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = j\omega\mu \frac{e^{-jk r}}{4\pi r} \sum_{n=1}^N I_n \int_{f_n} ((\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n)\hat{\mathbf{r}} - \hat{\mathbf{a}}_n) f_n(\mathbf{r}') e^{jk\mathbf{r}' \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}} d\mathbf{r}' \quad (45)$$

The integral can be tackled using quadrature, and all the terms are known.

## References

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