Parallel Higher Order DGTD and FETD for Transient Electromagnetic-Circuital-Thermal Co-Simulation

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Abstract—A hybrid higher order discontinuous Galerkin time-domain (DGTD) method and finite-element time-domain (FETD) method with parallel technique is proposed for electromagnetic (EM)–circuital–thermal co-simulation in this article. For electromagnetic simulation, DGTD method with higher order hierarchical vector basis functions is used to solve Maxwell equation. Circuit simulation is carried out by modified nodal analysis method. For thermal simulation, FETD method with higher order interpolation scalar basis functions is adopted to solve the heat conduction equation. To implement electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation, the electromagnetic and circuit equations are strongly coupled through voltages, currents, and electric fields at the lumped ports first. Then the electromagnetic and thermal equations are weakly coupled with electromagnetic loss and temperature-dependent medium parameters. Finally, large-scale parallel technique is used to accelerate the process of multiphysics simulation. Numerical results are given to validate the correctness and capability of the proposed electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation method.

Index Terms—Discontinuous Galerkin time-domain (DGTD) method, electromagnetic (EM)–circuital–thermal co-simulation, finite-element time-domain (FETD) method, higher order basis functions, parallel technique.

I. INTRODUCTION

The electromagnetic (EM) field–circuit coupling and thermal management problems are more and more serious with the increase in working frequency and power in microwave circuits. The accuracy of traditional pure circuit simulation cannot meet the engineering requirements with the increase in frequency. Numerical simulation method of electromagnetic field and traditional circuit theory must cooperate to implement electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation. Moreover, the large heat flux induced by high power can result in high temperature and nonuniform stress in microwave circuits. Thus, circuit malfunction will naturally happen over the long term. Therefore, electromagnetic–thermal co-simulation is significant in the initial design stage of microwave circuits. If we consider the influences of both high working frequency and high power, the electromagnetic field, lumped circuit, and thermal field will couple together and interact with each other. Electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation is indispensable under such circumstances.

Many scholars have focused on the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation method and electromagnetic–thermal co-simulation method. Electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation method consists of electromagnetic simulation method and circuit simulation method, which are linked together by voltages, currents, and electromagnetic fields at the lumped ports. The studies in this area are mainly related to different electromagnetic and circuit simulation methods. For instance, the finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) method [1]–[3], finite-element time-domain (FETD) method [4]–[6], time-domain integral equation (TDIE) method [7], [8], and the discontinuous Galerkin time domain (DGTD) method [9], [10] are used for electromagnetic simulation. Modified nodal analysis method [2], [4], [7], [9], scattering matrices method [6], and behavioral macromodel method [3], [8], [10] are applied for circuit simulation. The electromagnetic–thermal co-simulation method is composed of electromagnetic simulation method and thermal simulation method, which are mutually coupled through electromagnetic loss and constitutive parameter. The studies on electromagnetic–thermal co-simulation method are relatively less compared with the electromagnetic–circuital–co-simulation method. Much emphasis is put on numerical methods for solution of differential equations including Maxwell equation and heat conduction equation. The FDTD method [12], [13], FEM [13], [14], DGTD method [15], and spectral-element time-domain (SETD) method [16] are
adopted for electromagnetic–thermal co-simulation. It is worth mentioning that the electromagnetic simulation is carried out in the frequency domain in [13] and [14] with the hypothesis that time-harmonic excitation sources are imposed. Obviously, it is not applicable when a transient excitation source like a pulse is applied when two-way coupling of EM and thermal is considered. Another issue of concern is that the simultaneous simulation of electromagnetic, circuit, and thermal, has not been found yet in the existing literatures [16]. However, electromagnetic–circuit–thermal coupling is a very common phenomenon in microwave circuits [18]–[21]. For instance, the operating frequency and integration density are increased rapidly in present high-speed integrated circuits (ICs). The electromagnetic field effects such as crosstalk, radiation of the interconnects, and its coupling with the package become more and more noticeable. So classical circuit simulation must be replaced by electromagnetic–circuit co-simulation with the consideration of simulation accuracy. Meanwhile, the performance of IC is sensitive to temperature variations, which has influences on the material properties of ICs. So the electromagnetic–thermal interactions must also be taken into account simultaneously.

In this work, we propose a hybrid higher order DGTD and FETD method with parallel technique for transient electromagnetic–circuit–thermal co-simulation. The DGTD method with higher order hierarchical vector basis functions is used for electromagnetic simulation. The modified nodal analysis method is adopted for circuit simulation. The FETD method with higher order interpolation scalar basis functions is used for thermal simulation. Then the electromagnetic, circuit, and thermal simulations are coupled together by a well-designed coupling mechanism. Finally, large-scale parallel technique is applied to accelerate the process of multiphysics simulation. The contribution of this work includes: 1) simultaneous simulation of electromagnetic, circuit, and thermal is implemented; 2) higher order basis function technique is applied for multiphysics simulation to improve the simulation accuracy and efficiency; and 3) large-scale parallel technique is adopted to accelerate the multiphysics simulation process. In summary, a systematic solution for accurate and efficient electromagnetic–circuit–thermal co-simulation of microwave circuits is provided in this article.

This article is organized as follows. In Section II, the theories and formulations of the proposed method are introduced. In Section III, numerical examples are provided to present the accuracy, efficiency, and capability of the proposed method. Ultimately, conclusions are drawn in Section IV.

II. THEORIES AND FORMULATIONS

Fig. 1 shows the flowchart of electromagnetic–circuit–thermal co-simulation. At the $i$th time step, the electromagnetic–circuit co-simulation is carried out first since the rate of change in voltages, currents, and electromagnetic fields is at the same level. After that, the power loss of the material can be calculated according to the electromagnetic field inside the material, which serves as the heat sources of thermal simulation. After thermal simulation at the $i$th time step, the computation process will terminate if $i$ equals to the predetermined total number of time steps $N_t$. Otherwise, temperature-dependent constitutive parameters such as permittivities, permeabilities, and conductivities of materials are updated. It is worth mentioning that only temperature-dependent conductivities of materials are considered while the permittivities and permeabilities are assumed to be constant for the sake of simplicity. But the proposed method is also applicable to materials with temperature-dependent permittivities and permeabilities. The electromagnetic–circuit–thermal co-simulation at next time step continues. In the following, we will present the technical details of the simulation process.

A. Electromagnetic–Circuit–Thermal Co-Simulation With Higher Order DGTD Method

The EM simulation starts from the Maxwell curl equations

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} = \nabla \times \mathbf{H} - \sigma \mathbf{E}$$  

$$\frac{\mu \partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} = - \nabla \times \mathbf{E}$$

with permittivity $\varepsilon$, permeability $\mu$ and conductivity $\sigma$.

Let $V$ be the computational domain where the DGTD method is applied for EM simulation. The domain $V$ is subdivided into $N$ tetrahedron elements $V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_N$. The boundary of $V_i$ is $\partial V_i$. The second-order hierarchical vector
basis function defined in $V_i$ is $N_k$ [22], [23]
\[
N_k = L_{k1} \nabla L_{k2} - L_{k2} \nabla L_{k1} \quad (k = 1, 2, \ldots, 6)
\]
\[
N_k = L_{k1} \nabla L_{k2} + L_{k2} \nabla L_{k1} \quad (k = 7, 8, \ldots, 12)
\]
\[
N_k = L_{k3} (L_{k1} \nabla L_{k2} - L_{k2} \nabla L_{k1}) \quad (k = 13, 14, \ldots, 16)
\]
\[
N_k = L_{k3} (L_{k1} \nabla L_{k2} + L_{k2} \nabla L_{k1}) \quad (k = 17, 18, \ldots, 20)
\]

where $N_k (k = 1, 2, \ldots, 6)$ are the first-order basis functions. $k_1, k_2, k_3$ denote the three nodes of the tetrahedral surface, and $L$ refers to the volume coordinate.

Using the Galerkin testing method to (1) and (2), we can obtain
\[
\int_{V_i} \varepsilon N_k \frac{\partial E}{\partial t} dV + \int_{V_i} N_k \cdot \sigma V dV = \int_{V_i} \nabla \times N_k \cdot H dV
\]
\[
+ \int_{\partial V_i} N_k \cdot \hat{n} \times H dS \quad (7)
\]
\[
\int_{V_i} \mu N_k \cdot \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} dV = - \int_{V_i} \nabla \times N_k \cdot E dV
\]
\[
- \int_{\partial V_i} N_k \cdot \hat{n} \times E dS. \quad (8)
\]

By adopting upwind numerical flux to (7) and (8), the tangential fields on $\partial V_i$ depend on the linear combination of the tangential fields on both sides of $\partial V_i$ in two adjacent elements
\[
\hat{n} \times H = \hat{n} \times H_i + \frac{Z^j}{Z^i + Z^j} \hat{n} \times (H^j - H_i)
\]
\[
+ \frac{1}{Z^i + Z^j} \hat{n} \times (\hat{n} \times (E^j - E_i)) - \frac{Z^j J_{\text{CKT}}}{Z^i + Z^j} \quad (9)
\]
\[
\hat{n} \times E = \hat{n} \times E_i + \frac{Y^j}{Y^i + Y^j} \hat{n} \times (E^j - E_i)
\]
\[
+ \frac{1}{Y^i + Y^j} \hat{n} \times (\hat{n} \times (H^j - H_i)) - \hat{n} \times J_{\text{CKT}} \quad (10)
\]
The superscript $i$ or $j$ represents the quantity corresponding to the $i$th element or adjacent $j$th element. $Z^i = 1/Y^i = (\mu^i/\epsilon^i)^{1/2}$, $Z^j = 1/Y^j = (\mu^j/\epsilon^j)^{1/2}$. $J_{\text{CKT}}$ equal to zero at the surfaces without lumped ports.

Substitute (9) and (10) into (7) and (8), and expand the electromagnetic fields with the second-order hierarchical vector basis functions, we can obtain the semi-discrete DG matrix equations
\[
\varepsilon M^i \frac{\partial e^i}{\partial t} = S^i h^i + F_{ee}^i e^i - F_{eh}^i e^i - F_{ie}^i h^i
\]
\[
+ F_{eh}^{ij} h^j - C^i e^i - J_{e}^i \quad (11)
\]
\[
\mu M^i \frac{\partial h^i}{\partial t} = -S^i e^i + F_{eh}^i h^i - F_{ee}^i e^i
\]
\[
+ F_{he}^{ij} e^j - F_{he}^{ij} e^j + J_{h}^i. \quad (12)
\]
The leapfrog temporal integration scheme is used to generate the fully discrete DG matrix equations
\[
\varepsilon M^i e^i_{n+1} + \frac{\Delta t}{2} C^i e_{n+1} + \frac{\Delta t}{2} J_{e,n+1}
\]
\[
= \varepsilon M^i e_n + \Delta t \left[ S^i h^i_{n+1/2} - \frac{J_{e,n}}{2} + F_{ee}^i e_n - F_{eh}^{ij} e_n - F_{ie}^j h^j_{n+1/2} - \frac{1}{2} C^i e_n \right]
\]
\[
\mu M^i h^i_{n+3/2} = \mu M^i h_{n+1/2} + \Delta t \left[-S^i e_{n+1} + J_{h,n+1}
\]
\[
+ F_{ee}^i e_{n+1} + F_{eh}^{ij} h_{n+1/2} - F_{he}^{ij} e_{n+1} \right]. \quad (13)
\]

The modified nodal analysis method is adopted to obtain the matrix equations for the lumped circuits [24]. The resultant circuit equations can be expressed as a functional relationship between the port currents $I_n$ and port voltages $V_n$
\[
I_n = f (V_n). \quad (15)
\]
The coupling relationship between the electromagnetic and circuit equation is constructed using the port voltage, port current, and the electric field of the port element
\[
V_n = - \int_{V_i} E^i \cdot \hat{L} dL = - \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \int N_k \cdot \hat{L} dL \quad (16)
\]
\[
J_{\text{CKT}} = I_n / W \quad (17)
\]
where $\hat{L}$ represents the unit vector from the ground to the potential point at the lumped port. $W$ refers to the width of the lumped port.

The electromagnetic equations in (13) and (14) and the circuit equation in (15) can be combined into a whole synchronously solved marching-on-in-time system equation through (16) and (17). After solving this equation, we can obtain the port currents, the port voltages at the lumped ports, and the electromagnetic fields in the computational domain $V$.

### B. Thermal Simulation

The thermal simulation is based on the transient heat conduction equation
\[
\rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla T) + Q \quad (18)
\]
where $T$ refers to the transient temperature distribution of the object, which is the unknown of this equation. $\rho$ denotes the mass density. $C_p$ is the specific heat capacity. $\kappa$ represents the thermal conductivity. $Q$ is the heat source, which means the thermal energy generated per unit time and unit volume.

Consider the commonly used convection boundary condition which describes the thermal transfer between the object surface and its surrounding environment
\[
-\hat{n} \cdot \kappa \nabla T = h (T - T_{sur}) \quad (19)
\]
where $T_{\text{sur}}$ represents the surrounding temperature. $h$ refers to the convective heat transfer coefficient.

A standard process of the FETD method is used to solve the heat conduction equation. The tetrahedral mesh used for EM simulation is also adopted for thermal simulation. The unknown $T$ in (18) is expanded by the second-order scalar interpolation basis functions [25]

$$
N_k = (2L_k - 1)L_k \quad (k = 1, 2, 3, 4) \quad (20)
$$

$$
N_k = 4L_k \cdot L_k \quad (k = 5, 6, \ldots, 10) \quad (21)
$$

where $L_k$ is the volume coordinate related to node $k$ of a tetrahedral element. $L_{k1}$ and $L_{k2}$ denote the volume coordinate related to the two nodes of one of the six edges, respectively.

Using the Galerkin testing method and Crank–Nicolson (CN) scheme for temporal discretization [31], we can obtain the final matrix equation for thermal simulation

$$
\left[ [C] + [K]\frac{\Delta t}{2} \right] \{\tau_i\} = \left[ [C] - [K]\frac{\Delta t}{2} \right] \{\tau_{i-1}\} + \{f\} \Delta t \quad (22)
$$

where

$$
[C]_{kl} = \rho C_P \int_V N_k N_l dV \quad (23)
$$

$$
[K]_{kl} = \kappa \int_V \nabla N_k \cdot \nabla N_l dV + h \int_S N_k N_l dS \quad (24)
$$

$$
\{f\}_k = \int_V N_k Q dV + h \int_S N_k T_{\text{sur}} dS. \quad (25)
$$

After solving (22), we can obtain the transient temperature distribution of the object.

**C. Electromagnetic–Circuital–Thermal Coupling Mechanism**

After electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation at each time step, we can obtain the corresponding electric field distribution $E$. Then we can calculate the dissipated power at that time step

$$
P = \sigma |E|^2. \quad (26)
$$

This dissipated power serves as the heat source $Q$ in thermal simulation. According to the thermal simulation result at each time step, we can check if the temperature distribution changes. The changed temperature may influence temperature-dependent medium parameters such as permittivity, permeability, and conductivity. Thus, it will influence the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation in the next time step. This process iterates until the current time step equals to the predetermined total number of time steps $N_t$.

In this article, we only consider the influence of temperature on conductivity. Their relationships are supposed to be

$$
\sigma = \frac{\sigma_0}{1 + \alpha(T - T_i)} \quad (27)
$$

where $\sigma_0$ is the conductivity at initial temperature $T_i$. $\alpha$ is the temperature coefficient of the material.

The strategy of temporal discretization for electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation also needs to be well-designed. In our work, the CN scheme is adopted for temporal discretization of thermal simulation, which is unconditionally stable. Leapfrog scheme is used for temporal discretization of electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation, which is explicit and conditionally stable. So Courant limit needs to be taken into account for electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation. The time step size of the $i$th element of the DGTD method $\Delta t_i$ should satisfy [26]–[28]

$$
c_i \Delta t_i \left[ \frac{4\sqrt{3}}{3} + \frac{8}{3} \max \left( \sqrt{\frac{\mu_i}{\mu_j}}, \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon_i}{\varepsilon_j}} \right) \right] \leq \frac{4V_i}{P_i} \quad (28)
$$

where $c_i = 1/(\varepsilon_i \mu_j)^{1/2}$ is the speed of light. $V_i$ refers to the volume of the $i$th element. $P_i$ is the total area of four facets of the $i$th element. The subscript $j$ represents one of the neighboring elements of the $i$th element. The time step size of all the elements is the same in this article, which is $\Delta t = \min\{\Delta t_i, i = 1, 2, \ldots, N\}$.

Since the temperature changes much slower than the electromagnetic fields, we can also adopt larger time step size for thermal simulation than for electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation to implement asynchronous electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation to accelerate the simulation process. The time step size of thermal simulation is chosen to be $k_{T-EM}$ times of the time step size of EM simulation

$$
\Delta t_{fh} = k_{T-EM} \Delta t_{EM} \quad (29)
$$

where $k_{T-EM}$ is recommended to be smaller than 2000 to guarantee accuracy according to the numerical experiments in Section III. In the asynchronous electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation, the dissipated powers obtained by electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation of every $k_{T-EM}$ time steps are averaged as the heat source of thermal simulation.

**D. Parallel Strategies**

Since the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation and thermal simulation are weakly coupled, they are separately parallelized using message passing interface (MPI) technique to accelerate the electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation. There are mainly three stages for parallelization of both the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation and thermal simulation, namely, mesh grouping, matrix filling and equation solving.

In the stage of mesh grouping, the original meshes are divided into different groups as shown in Fig. 2. Thus, each
process can handle one group of meshes. There are two important rules for good grouping: 1) the number of meshes for each group should be almost the same to guarantee load balance and 2) the interfaces between the meshes of different groups should be minimum to reduce inter-process communication. Thanks to the METIS software [29], we can easily group the original meshes satisfying the above two rules.

For electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation, each process computes the element matrices related to its own group of meshes during matrix filling stage. What calls for special attention is that the information of adjacent elements is needed when computing $F_{ee}$, $F_{eh}$, $F_{he}$, and $F_{hh}$ because inter-process communication is needed for the elements at the interfaces belonging to two adjacent groups. All the other matrices can be calculated directly by each process without inter-process communication. Similarly, in the stage of solving matrix equation, each process will solve many small element matrix equations related to its own meshes. However, inter-process communication is required when computing the matrix vector multiplication $F_{ee}^{ij}e_j$, $F_{eh}^{ij}h_j$, $F_{he}^{ij}e_j$, and $F_{hh}^{ij}h_j$ in (13) and (14) for the elements at the interfaces belonging to two adjacent groups. Since the elements at the interfaces account for a very small percentage of all the elements, the amount of inter-process communication of the DGTD method is quite small, resulting in a rather high parallel efficiency.

For thermal simulation, after the element matrices with their expressions in (23), (24), and (25) are computed in each process, the large global sparse matrix at the left-hand side of (22) need to be assembled using all the element matrices. The right-hand side of (22) can be calculated by each process in parallel. Finally, the final large matrix equation is solved using a parallel sparse direct solver named multifrontal massively parallel sparse direct solver (MUMPS) at each time step [30]. Since the FETD method needs to solve global sparse matrix equations, the parallel efficiency is relatively lower than the DGTD method due to the great amount of inter-process communication.

The standard definition of parallel efficiency is

$$\eta = \frac{T_s}{N T_N}$$  

(30)

where $T_s$ is the total CPU time when a problem is solved by a single process, while $T_N$ is the total CPU time when the same problem is solved by $N$ processes. In practice, if the problem to be solved cannot fit into a single process, we take the time for the smallest number of processes as the reference. The parallel efficiency is re-defined as

$$\eta = \frac{T_s}{T_N N}$$  

(31)

where $T_N_s$ is the total CPU time taken by $N_s$ processes, and $T_N$ is the total CPU time taken by $N$ processes. In this case, the smallest number of processes is $N_s$.

III. Numerical Results

In this section, four numerical examples are given to validate the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation method, thermal simulation method, and the electromagnetic–circuital-thermal co-simulation method. The computational platform adopted for the testing of parallel efficiency is a High Performance Cluster of Beijing Super Cloud Computing Center (BSCC). There are 100 compute nodes in the cluster. Each node is equipped with AMD EPYC 7452 CPU with 32 cores and 256-GB RAM. Each core supports two processes. Other numerical results are obtained on a workstation with Intel Xeon E5-1660 CPU with eight cores and 128-GB RAM.

A. Validation of Electromagnetic–Circuital Co-Simulation Method by a Microstrip Line Structure

As shown in Fig. 3, a microstrip line resides 0.5 mm above the ground plane. The length and the width of microstrip line are 15 and 1.6 mm, respectively. The length and width of the ground plane are 30 and 20 mm, respectively. The relative dielectric constant of the substrate is 2.0. Two lumped ports are defined at port $a$ and port $b$, respectively. Port $a$ is driven by a Gaussian pulse source in series with a 50-Ω resistor. Port $b$ is connected with a 50-Ω resistor.

First, the model is discretized into 3523 tetrahedron elements. The total simulation time is set to be 0.8 ns. The total number of time steps is 30000. Second-order hierarchical vector basis function is adopted. The voltages at port $a$ and port $b$ are obtained by the DGTD method as shown in Fig. 4. Besides, the transient electric field components at two randomly chosen sampling points P1 ($−6.5, 0, 0.25$ mm) and P2 ($2.5, 0, 0.25$ mm) are calculated as shown in Fig. 5. The transient electric field distribution on the plane of $z = 0.25$ mm at 0.25 ns is given in Fig. 6. All the results obtained by our proposed method agree well with those of COMSOL software. Besides, the CPU times and the memory requirements of the proposed method and the COMSOL software are compared in Table I for all the numerical examples in this section. Both the proposed method and the COMSOL software use parallel
computing with eight cores. Obviously, the CPU time and memory consumption of the proposed method are less than the COMSOL software.

Second, both the first-order vector basis functions and second-order vector basis functions are used, respectively, to compare their performance. The voltage value at port $a$ is recorded. The average relative error is calculated using (32). As shown in Table II, when the accuracy of two kinds of basis functions is similar, the number of elements, memory requirement, and CPU time needed when using second-order basis functions are much less than those when using first-order basis functions.

$$\text{Error} = \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{n=1}^{N_t} \left| \frac{V^n_{\text{DGTD}} - V^n_{\text{COMSOL}}}{V^n_{\text{COMSOL}}} \right|$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)

where $N_t$ is the total number of time steps, and $V^n_{\text{DGTD}}$ and $V^n_{\text{COMSOL}}$ are the voltage values at time step $n$ calculated by the DGTD method and COMSOL software, respectively.

### Table I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Number of Elements</th>
<th>CPU Times (s)</th>
<th>Memory Requirements (MB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Proposed</td>
<td>3523</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>COMSOL</td>
<td>3509</td>
<td>791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Proposed</td>
<td>49396</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>COMSOL</td>
<td>49396</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### Table II

<table>
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<th>Mesh Size (mm)</th>
<th>Number of Elements</th>
<th>Memory Requirement (MB)</th>
<th>CPU Time (s)</th>
<th>Average Relative Error (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>41695</td>
<td>3523</td>
<td>1388</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
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### Table III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Processes</th>
<th>CPU Time (h)</th>
<th>Parallel Efficiency</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
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<td>100% (Baseline)</td>
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<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>98.3%</td>
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<tr>
<td>192</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>94.6%</td>
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<tr>
<td>256</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third, the parallel performance of the proposed method is assessed. The model is discretized into 158,380 elements. Second-order hierarchical vector basis function is adopted. The CPU time corresponding to 64, 128, 192, 256, and 512 processes is recorded. Then the parallel efficiency of the proposed method is computed as given in Table III. It can be observed that the DGTD method has a quite good parallel performance.

### B. Validation of Thermal Simulation Method by Dual-Polarized Dipole Antenna Structure

The thermal simulation of a $3 \times 3$ base station antenna array is carried out as the second example. As shown in Fig. 7, the structure consists of nine dual-polarized dipole antennas, a ground plane, and six heat source blocks. The sizes of the antenna element and the ground plane are $33.125 \times 33.125 \times 25$ mm$^3$ and $214 \times 185 \times 1.875$ mm$^3$, respectively. The detailed dimensions of the geometry are summarized in Table IV. The material of the whole structure is aluminum. The total power of the six heat source blocks is 19.2 W, which is used to imitate the heating of RF circuits. All boundary surfaces of the structure are supposed to be the
convective boundary conditions with heat transfer coefficient \( h = 5 \text{ W}/(\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K}) \). The ambient temperature and initial temperature of the structure are 293.15 K. The structure is discretized into 49,396 tetrahedron elements. The total simulation time is 3000 s. The total number of time steps is 3000. Second-order scalar basis function is adopted. The temperatures at two randomly chosen sampling points P1 (92, 100, 0 mm) and P2 (31, 88, −26 mm) are calculated as shown in Fig. 8. In addition, the 3-D temperature distributions of the structure obtained by the proposed method and COMSOL software at 190 s are also demonstrated in Fig. 9. Good agreement can be observed. The CPU times and memory requirements of the proposed method and the COMSOL software are given in Table I.

Both the first-order scalar basis functions and second-order scalar basis functions are adopted, respectively, to compare their performance. The temperatures of six randomly chosen observation points are recorded. The average relative error is calculated by (33). As shown in Table V, when the accuracy of two kinds of basis functions is the same, the number of elements, memory requirement, and CPU time needed when using second-order basis functions are less than those when using first-order basis functions.

\[
\text{Error} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{p=1}^{M} \left( \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{n=1}^{N_i} \left| \frac{T_{n, p}^{\text{FETD}} - T_{n, p}^{\text{COMSOL}}}{T_{n, p}^{\text{COMSOL}}} \right| \right)
\]

where \( N_i \) is the total number of time steps, \( M \) is the total number of observation points, and \( T_{n, p}^{\text{FETD}} \) and \( T_{n, p}^{\text{COMSOL}} \) are the temperatures of the \( p \)th observation point at time step \( n \) calculated using the FETD method and COMSOL software, respectively.

Finally, the parallel performance of the proposed method is assessed. The model is discretized into 333,087 elements. The CPU time corresponding to 8, 16, 32, 56, and 64 processes is recorded. Then the parallel efficiency of the proposed method is computed given in Table VI. The parallel efficiency of
C. Electromagnetic–Circuital–Thermal Co-Simulation of a Microstrip Line Loaded With a Diode

The dimension of the microstrip line structure is the same as the one in Fig. 3. Port \( a \) is driven by a sinusoidal voltage source in series with a 50-\( \Omega \) resistor. Port \( b \) is connected with a diode in parallel with a 50-\( \Omega \) resistor, the equivalent circuit model of which is shown in Fig. 10. The electromagnetic parameters of the substrate are \( \varepsilon_r = 2.0 \), \( \sigma_0 = 0.1 \). The thermal parameters are \( \rho = 2330 \text{ kg/m}^3 \), \( C_p = 704 \text{ J/(kg \cdot K)} \), \( \alpha = 0.01 \text{ K}^{-1} \), and \( \kappa = 30 \text{ W/(m \cdot K)} \). In the thermal simulation, convective boundary condition is applied on all boundary surfaces with the heat transfer coefficient \( h = 15 \text{ W/(m}^2 \cdot \text{K)} \). In addition, the ambient and initial temperatures are 293.15 K. The structure is discretized into 3523 tetrahedral elements. The total simulation time is set to be 10 ns. The total number of time steps is 250 000. The second-order vector basis function is used for electromagnetic simulation, while the first-order scalar basis function is adopted for thermal simulation.

First, the time step sizes for both electromagnetic–circuital and thermal simulations are chosen to be the same. The voltage at port \( b \) is shown in Fig. 11. Besides, the transient electric field component at a randomly chosen sampling point P (2.5, 0, 0.25 mm) is calculated as shown in Fig. 12. The temperature distribution on the plane of \( z = 0.25 \text{ mm} \) at 0.5 ns is shown in Fig. 13. All the results obtained by our proposed method agree well with those of COMSOL software.

Second, asynchronous electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation is tested. The temperature curves at a randomly chosen sampling point P (−6.5 mm, 0 mm, 0.25 mm) is computed using different thermal time steps \( k_{T-EM} = 1, 1000, 2000, 5000, 8000 \) as shown in Fig. 14. The transient electric field distributions on the plane of \( z = 0.25 \text{ mm} \) at 4 ns with \( k_{T-EM} = 1, 2000, 8000 \) are displayed in Fig. 15. The results corresponding to \( k_{T-EM} = 2000 \) show small differences with the cases of \( k_{T-EM} = 1 \). So we recommend \( k_{T-EM} = 2000 \) to guarantee accuracy. Besides, the CPU time of \( k_{T-EM} = 2000 \) is reduced by over 43% compared with \( k_{T-EM} = 1 \).

D. Electromagnetic–Circuital–Thermal Co-Simulation of a MESFET Microwave Power Amplifier

A MESFET microwave power amplifier is analyzed as the last example. The microstrip matching network is shown in Fig. 16(a). The input port \( a \) and the output port \( b \) are driven by dc sources with amplitudes \( V_{GG} = -0.81 \) and \( V_{DD} = 18.96 \). An extra sinusoidal voltage source operating at 6 GHz is applied at port \( a \). A MESFET is connected with ports G and D. The equivalent circuit models for the lumped circuits connected with the four ports are shown in Fig. 16(b). The microstrip matching network is discretized into 16 385 tetrahedral elements. The total simulation time is set to be 10 ns. The total number of time steps is 200 000. The second-order vector basis function is used for electromagnetic simulation, while the first-order scalar basis function is adopted for thermal simulation.
First, the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation and the electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation are carried out to further verify the accuracy of the proposed method. In the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation, the substrate is supposed to be lossless with \( \varepsilon_r = 2.33 \). In the electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation, the relative dielectric constant of the substrate keeps unchanged. But the loss of the substrate is considered with \( \sigma_0 = 0.1 \). The thermal parameters are \( \rho = 2330 \text{ kg/m}^3 \), \( C_p = 1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ J/(kg·K)} \), \( \alpha = 0.1 (1/\text{K}) \), \( \kappa = 9 \times 10^5 \text{ W/(m·K)} \). In the thermal simulation, all boundary surfaces of the structure are imposed convective boundary conditions with heat transfer coefficient \( h = 0.1 \text{ W/(m}^2 \cdot \text{K)} \). The ambient and initial temperatures are 293.15 K. An extra heat source of 36 kW is applied at the position of the MESFET to imitate its heating effect. The voltage waveforms at port G, port D, port a, and port b obtained from the proposed method agree well with those of COMSOL software in Fig. 17. Significant changes can be observed in the voltage waveforms of Fig. 17(c) and (d) compared with those of Fig. 17(a) and (b), which means that the thermal effect can greatly influence the electrical property of the power amplifier. It cannot be ignored if a near-reality simulation result is expected. Moreover, the temperature distributions on the plane of \( z = 0.7874 \text{ mm} \) at 9.5 ns obtained by the proposed
method and COMSOL software are shown in Fig. 18. A good agreement can be observed.

Second, we perform a small-signal analysis to calculate the $S$-parameters of the microwave amplifier. Once the system reaches its steady state, a modulated Gaussian pulse centered at 6 GHz is added on top of the dc signal, while the active device still operates in the linear region. Same process as above, the electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation and the electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation of the model are carried out. The electrical and thermal parameters remain unchanged. The voltage waveforms of port G, port D, port a, and port b are shown in Fig. 19. Then we use the voltages at Port a and Port b to calculate the $S$-parameters of the MESFET microwave amplifier. Fig. 20 shows the $S_{11}$ and $S_{21}$ curves based on electromagnetic–circuital co-simulation and electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation. Apparent differences induced by the thermal effect can be observed in Fig. 20, which proved the importance and necessity of electromagnetic–circuital-thermal co-simulation.

Finally, asynchronous electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation is tested with $k_{T-EM} = 2000$ compared with the synchronous electromagnetic–circuital-thermal co-simulation with $k_{T-EM} = 1$. The $S_{11}$ and $S_{21}$ curves are shown in Fig. 20. The results obtained by asynchronous co-simulation agree well with those obtained by synchronous co-simulation. Besides, the corresponding CPU times are given in Table VIII. More than 40% of the CPU time can be saved for thermal simulation with asynchronous electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation.

IV. CONCLUSION

An efficient transient electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation method is proposed in this article. The electromagnetic simulation, circuit simulation, and thermal
simulation are based on higher order DGTD method, modified nodal analysis method, and higher order FETD method, respectively. A physics-based coupling mechanism is constructed to achieve reasonable and accurate multiphysics simulation. Large-scale parallel technique is also implemented to further accelerate the whole simulation process. The proposed method provides a very effective and powerful solution scheme for electromagnetic–circuital–thermal co-simulation, which can be widely applied for the design of electronic components and systems with coupled electromagnetic, circuitual, and thermal phenomena.

APPENDIX

\[
[M]_{kk}^i = \int_{V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik} \cdot \mathbf{N}_{jk}^i dV \tag{34}
\]

\[
[S]_{kk}^i = \int_{V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{N}_{jk}^i) dV \tag{35}
\]

\[
[F]_{eh,kk}^i = \frac{Z_j}{Z_i + Z_j} \int_{\partial V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot (\hat{n} \times \mathbf{N}_{jk}^i) dS \tag{36}
\]

\[
[F]_{fe,kk}^i = \frac{Z_j}{Y_i + Y_j} \int_{\partial V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot (\hat{n} \times \mathbf{L}_{jk}^i) dS \tag{37}
\]

\[
[F]_{ee,kk}^i = \frac{1}{Z_i + Z_j} \int_{\partial V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot (\hat{n} \times \hat{n} \times \mathbf{N}_{jk}^i) dS \tag{38}
\]

\[
[F]_{hh,kk}^i = \frac{1}{Y_i + Y_j} \int_{\partial V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot (\hat{n} \times \hat{n} \times \mathbf{N}_{jk}^i) dS \tag{39}
\]

\[
[C]_{kk}^i = \int_{V_i} \sigma \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot \mathbf{N}_{jk}^i dV \tag{40}
\]

\[
[J]_{ckt,kk}^i = \frac{Z_j}{Z_i + Z_j} \int_{\partial V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot \mathbf{J}_{ckt}^i dS \tag{41}
\]

\[
[J]_{ckt,kk}^i = \frac{1}{Y_i + Y_j} \int_{\partial V_i} \mathbf{N}_{ik}^i \cdot \hat{n} \times \mathbf{J}_{ckt}^i dS \tag{42}
\]

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