NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL Monterey, California



THESIS

EVALUATION OF GEOMAGNETIC ACTIVITY IN THE MAD FREQUENCY BAND (.04 to 0.6 Hz)

Ъу

Jeffrey Mark Schweiger

October 1982

Thesis Advisor:

0. Heinz

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H125 641	
TITLE (and Sublitio)	S. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED
Evaluation of Geomagnetic Activity in the	October 1982
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AUTHOR(e)	. CONTRACT OR GRANT HUMBER(#)
Jeffrey Mark Schweigen	
PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS	10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK
Naval Postgraduate School	
Monterey, California 93940	
CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS	12. REPORT DATE
Naval Postgraduate School	October 1982
Monterey, California 93940	13. NUMBER OF PAGES
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Evaluation of Geomagnetic Activity in the MAD Frequency Band (.04 to 0.6 Hz)

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by

Jeffrey Mark Schweiger Lieutenant, United States Navy S. B., Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1975

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN SYSTEMS TECHNOLOGY from the NAVAL POSIGRADUATE SCHOOL October 1982

Author Approved by: Thesis Advisor Second Reader Chairman, ASW Academic Group Academic Dean

ABSTRACT

After defining geomagnetic noise as it applies to MAD, the geomagnetic indices currently used by the fleet to pradict MAD geomagnetic noise are reviewed to determine their actual applicability. The current indices are determined to be insufficient, methods are proposed for establishing a new MAD index, and a developmental MAD index system was tested. Geomagnetic fluctuations in the .04 to 2.0 Hz frequency band were recorded at Monterey, California, and used for a preliminary test of the proposed MAD index.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENIS

Although many people contributed directly and indirectly I owe a special gratitude to my advisors, to this thesis, Dr. Otto Heinz and Dr. Andrew R. Ochadlick, Jr. for their guidance, cooperation and assistance. I am also deeply indebted to Mr. David F. Norman of the W. R. Church Computer Center, and other center personnel for assistance in the debugging of my computer software. Thanks is also due to Paul H. Moose and Dr. Michael Thomas for general Dr. guidance, to CPT Edward Pogue, USA, for assistance in data collection, and to LCDR Arnold Gritzke, USN, and LT Robert Johnson, USN for their assembly of and assistance in documenting the PCM system.

I. <u>GEOMAGNETICS REVIEW</u>

A. HISTORY OF GEOMAGNETICS

The beginnings of the study of geomagnetism lie back in prehistory when magnetic attraction between iron and certain minerals was first observed. Exactly when this phenomenon was first noticed is not known, but the properties of magnetite, then called lodestone, appeared in Greek literature around 600 B. C. (Brennan and Davis). [Ref. 1]

Chapman [Ref. 2] indicates that the directional property of magnets was known and used in Europe prior to 1200 A. D. and possibly in China before then. E. N. Parker [Ref. 3] noted "It is an interesting fact that the ancient walls of Peking were lined up with magnetic north rather than geographic north, a difference at that time of about 1°. We may presume that the surveyor found it easier to work with his compass needle by day than to sight on the pole star by night." This property allows the use of the Earth's geomagnetic field for navigational purposes.

By the mid-fifteenth century it was determined in Europe that the magnetic compass does not point to true north. The angle between true north and the direction indicated by the compass is now known as magnetic declination by the geophysicist and as variation by the navigator.

The magnetic field dip, or magnetic inclination is the angle, in a vertical plane, between the horizontal and the direction of the earth's magnetic field vector. It was observed in 1544 by an instrument maker in Nuremberg named Hartmann, and again by Robert Norman in London in 1581.

These discoveries or observations gave rise to the study of geomagnetics as a specialty which gained its cornerstone with William Gilbert in 7600. After comparing his experimental results with the previous work of others such as Norman, Gilbert, in his book, "De Magnete," concluded that "magnus magnes ipse est globus terrestris (the earth globe itself is a great magnet)" [Ref. 2]. It is this concept, that the earth is itself a magnet, that is the basis of the science of geomagnetics.

Gilbert felt that the Earth's magnetism must remain constant except for geological changes, but it was soon determined that this was not the case. A 'secular variation' of the Earth's was found to exist.

Shorter term changes in the geomagnetic field were observed and it was eventually realized that geomagnetism is dynamic. In 1722 George Graham discovered that daily, or diurnal, variations exist [Ref. 2]. During the early Ninetwenth century magnetic observatories began to be established to record the changes in the geomagnetic field in a systematic fashion (Knecht) [Ref. 4].

B. EARTH'S MAGNETIC FIELD

1. Constituents of the Geomagnetic Field

There are various ways of breaking down the constituting parts of the geomagnetic field. One way is to divide the field in terms of distance from the center of the earth. Doing this yields these three parts: internal, crustal, and external (AFGL) [Ref. 5]. The internal field originates in the core region and is the more stable field, containing only extremely low frequency temporal variations. The crustal (or anomalous) field arises from modifications made on the internal field by materials and structures in the Earth's crust. These variations are not spatially constant and give rise to some of what is known as geological

variations. The external field is the most dynamic and arises from many sources including the interaction between the solar wind and the terrestrial magnetic field.

Another way of describing the components of the geomagnetic field is by time variation. This division is accomplished by considering that part of the field which varies with periodicities greater than about one year as the <u>steady field</u> and what is left as the <u>variation field</u> (Knecht). [Ref. 4]

The staady field consists of the above named internal field, also referred to as the <u>main field</u>. Slow variations in the main field with periods of years or longer are referred to as <u>secular variations</u>.

2. Models of the Main Field

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Various models of the main geomagnetic field make use of a geocentric dipole. Gauss, in 1839, demonstrated that, as a fairly good first approximation to the geomagnetic field, the field of a uniformly magnetized sphere (for points outside the sphere) is equivalent to the field of a magnetic dipole located at the center of the sphere (Jacobs). [Ref. 6]

The simplest of the present approximations of the geomagnetic field is that of a short bar magnet or dipole located at the center of the earth with an axis inclined approximately 11.5° from the Earth's axis of rotation. The sense of the field lines is from south to north (Figure 1.1).

The axis of this dipole intersects the earth at the geomagnetic north pole, 78.5°N, 291.0°E in geographic coordinates, and at the geomagnetic south pole, 78.5°S, 110.0°E. The moment of the geomagnetic dipole is 8.1 x 10^{22} amp-m². It is these poles that are used to define the geomagnetic



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Figure 1.1 Dipole Appearance of Geomagnetic Field

coordinate system (Knecht) [Ref. 4]. The geomagnetic coordinate system is a spherical polar system similar to the geographic coordinate system with a geomagnetic equator defined 90 degrees away from either geomagnetic pole in latitude. This tilted geocentric dipole model describes the main geomagnetic field to an accuracy of about 10%.

In 1940 Chapman and Bartels defined an off-center dipole in the earth's interior, called the eccentric dipole. This dipole is displaced 0.0685 earth radii (436 km) in magnitude from the center and in the direction of the point 15.6°N, 150.9°E (geographic coordinates) (Vestine) [Ref. 7].

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The intersections of the eccentric dipole axis at the earth's surface are 81.0°N, 84.7°W and 75.0°S, 120.4°E (Figure 1.2) (Haymes) [Ref. 8]. This approximation is accurate to within a few percent.

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Figure 1.2 Eccentric Dipole Hodel of Geomagnetic Field

The field has additionally been modeled to an accuracy of about 1% by determining Gaussian coefficients by a least-squares fit of experimental measurements of the geomagnetic field. These coefficients are used in a spherical harmonic series representing the scalar potential of the field. This accuracy implies that the internal contribution to the total main field is at least on the order of 99%.

The International Geomegnetic Reference Field (IGRF) yields values which differ by only parts per thousand from measured values.

3. Sources of the Geomagnetic Field

There are various elements that contribute to the geomagnetic field, some external to the earth's surface and some internal. As previously mentionned, the external contributions make up only a small fraction of the steady field, playing a more important role in the <u>variation field</u>.

These external sources include current systems in the earth's upper atmosphere affected by solar electromagnetic radiation and gravitation, solar corpuscular radiation or the interaction of solar plasma with the main field, and the effect of the solar interplanetary field. [Ref. 4]

Various magnetic surveys of the world, including those conducted at ground level, by airborne instruments, and by satellite, have pointed to the fact that the largest source of the earth's magnetic field is internal to it. While there exists residual permanent magnetism in the earth's crust, this cannot be the principal internal source of the geomagnetic field due to temperature and material properties known to exist in the earth's interior (Nagata and Ozima). [Ref. 9]

Permanent magnetism is generated by microscopic electric currents, since a changing electric field will generate a magnetic field. Another way to generate a magnetic field is by the motion of electric charges in a

macroscopic current. Convective motion of the electrically conducting fluid core of the earth, resulting in a macroscopic current system, is considered to be the principal source of the main field.

The most promising present theory of the generation of the geomagnetic field is that of some sort of a self-exciting dynamo system. This means that the motion of a conductor, such as the molten iron in the earth's core, in a magnetic field produces a current which in turn induces a magnetic field in support of the original magnetic field [Ref. 4, 7]. A very simple model of such a dynamo is shown in Figure 1.3.



Figure 1.3 Simple Disk Dynamo

The original excitation or seed field may be due to an external field line, perhaps from the solar interplanetary magnetic field. This original, poloidal, field line is wound up due to the differential rotation (rotation not constant with latitude) in the molten core. The wound up line becomes an intense azimuthal field which is carried outward by the upwelling associated with convection and twisted by the action of the Coriolis force. The twisting generates a helical toroidal field which, by outward diffusion, generates the externally observed quasidipole geomagnetic field.

The combination and interaction of two (see Figure 1.4) or more disk dynamos can also can also explain the reversal of the geomagnetic field [Ref. 7, 9].



Figure 1.4 Twin Disk Dynamo

Regional anomalies that are nondipolar (do not conform to the dipole field) possibly arise from eddy circulations in the outer core [Ref. 4]. 4. Magnetosphere

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The <u>magnetosphere</u> can be defined to be that region (see Figure 1.5) occupied by the geomagnetic field above the ionosphere, a region where the field stongly influences the dynamics of ionized gas and charged particles (Kern) [Ref. 10].

If the space surrounding the earth were a perfect vacuum, the earth's magnetosphere and magnetic field might be more or less symmetric and extend outward until it merged with, and its strength became insignificant compared to the solar and other planetary magnetic fields. This turns out not to be the case.

Instead of being an island in a perfect vacuum, the earth encounters a continuous flow of hot, highly conductive ionized gas, or plasma, streaming outward from the sun. This continuous stream of charged particles is called the <u>solar wind</u>. The density of this 'wind' near earth is on the order of 10 particles per cm^3 , and has a velocity averaging 300-500 km per second (Jacobs). [Ref. 6]

Both the solar wind and the geomagnetic field exert pressure. The hot plasma of the solar wind pushes against the geomagnetic field deforming the field. At distances greater than about 13 or 14 earth radii, the pressure of the solar wind greatly exceeds that of the geomagnetic field and the geomagnetic field will be swept along with the wind. From 8 to 10 earth radii inward, the geomagnetic field pressure will predominate, excluding the solar wind, this being the region of the magnetosphere.

In the intermediate region, the magnitude of the solar wind and geomagnetic field pressures are comparable and the solar wind is compressed and flows around the geomagnetic field. This occurs when the magnetic energy density ahead of the plasma equals the kinetic energy

density of the streaming plasma. The solar wind is stopped at this point and forced to flow around the magnetosphere. This region where the magnetosphere starts is called the magnetopause. [Ref. 8]

The velocity of the undisturbed solar wind is analogous to a 'supersonic' velocity. Thus a shock front is formed between the magnetopause and the solar wind. The <u>magnetosheath</u> is the region of severe turbulence that exists between the shock front and the magnetopause.

Since the solar wind always travels outward from the sun, the effect of the wind on the earth's main field is not completely symmetric, although it is almost symmetric about an axis through the earth and sun. A <u>geomagnetic tail</u> is formed where the wind sweeps the geomagnetic field along with it on the nightside of the earth [Ref. 4]. Figure 1.5 pictorially represents the effects of the solar wind on the geomagnetic field.

5. Time Variations of the Geomagnatic Field

The geomagnetic field changes with time. As previously mentioned, very slow variations in the main field with periods on the order of years to thousands of years are Secular variations are referred to as secular variations. geologic or 'paleomagnetic' in origin. Secular variations are not caused by a strength or orientation change of the center dipole. Paleomagnetic studies are used to determine secular variation. Geologic structure, the especially conductivity structure, may partially mask the secular variation at one point on the earth as compared to that at another point.

Other time variations of the field can be categorized into <u>quiet variation fields</u> and <u>disturbed variation</u> <u>fields</u>. Disturbed variation fields include <u>geomagnetic</u>



Figure 1.5 Configuration of The Magnetosphere

<u>micropulsutions</u> which will be discussed separately, since they are of particular interest as a noise source for MAD sensors.

a. Quiet Variation Fields

Quiet variation fields are those which are not due to disturbances in the interplanetary environment and which vary slowly and regularly [Ref. 4].

There are several contributing fields to the quiet variation. These include the <u>Solar Quiet Daily</u> <u>Variation (Sg)</u>, the <u>Lunar Daily Variation (L</u>), and the daily variation due to magnetospheric effects. The Solar Quiet (Sq) variation is the name given to the pattern of diurnal field variation with respect to solar local time which is caused by currents flowing in the ionosphere (Matsushita) [Ref. 11]. The major portion (about two-thirds) of the Sq field is due to what is referred as an <u>atmospheric dynamo</u>. High speed tidal winds are generated by solar heating causing convection of the upper atmosphere [Ref. 4]. These winds produce a stationary current system by moving the conducting particles of the upper atmosphere across the geomagnetic field lines. The daily variation is caused by the earth rotating under the current system. The remaining third of the Sq variation is caused by currents in the earth induced by the primary currents in the ionosphere.

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. · The Sq field can be shown to be latitude dependent reaching a maximum at the magnetic equator where a concentration of current, the equatorial electrojet, exists [Ref. 4]. The maximum horizontal component intensity is about 100 nT at the equator with 25 to 50 nT more likely at higher latitudes.

Longitudinal, seasonal, and solar cycle dependencies also occur for the Sq field.

An example of the quiet-day variation at Monterey, California is shown in Figure 1.6 and is summarized in Table I. This data was taken using a Cesium Vapor total field magnetometer in February, 1979.

The Lunar Daily Variation, L, is approximately one-tenth the magnitude of the Sq field and exhibits a semi-diurnal behavior in lunar time [Ref. 4]. The major difference is that the winds are caused by lunar-solar gravitational tides. The L field is dependent on seasonal influences, lunar phase, the solar cycle, and latitude.



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Figure 1.6 Variation of Total Geomagnetic Field Intensity, February 26, 1979

TABLE I

Quiet Day Variation in La Mesa Village, February, 26, 1979

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POSITION 36"36"N, 121"51"W (LA MESA VILLAGE)

CALCULATED VALUES USING THE 1975 U.S. CHART MODEL (WORLD DATA CENTER A, BOULDER, COLORADO) FOR FEBRUARY 1979:

	D	T	. HCNT)	Z(NT)	FCNTD
VALUE (FEB. 1979): Yearly change :	15.96*	60.74• 8 •	24,650	44,007 -32.1	50,441 -30.1

MEASURED VALUES OF TOTAL FIELD INTENSITY FOR FEB. 25, 1979

DATE	TIME	PCNTS	الع.
2/25/79	80:44	50,405.24	•
	81:48	50,405.79	
	02:52	50,404.80	
	03:56	50,405.48	
	85:00	50,408.19	
ι.	06:04	50,409.15	·
	97:08	50,409.66	
•	08:12	50,399.69	
	09:16	50,381.59	
	10:20	50,363.68	
	11:24	50,345.08	
	12:28	50,338.51	MID-DAY LOW
	13:32	50.356.48	
	14:36	50.378.86	
	15:40	50.386.98	,
	16:66	50.384.30	
	18:51	50.400.81	
	10:55	50.396.91	
	20150	50,530.50	
	44.37	50,401.05	
	22:03		
	23:07	30,900.39	
2/26/79	00:11	50,406.51	

AVERAGE 50,390.50 ± 21.43 (NT)

FCALC - FMEAS = SO.S NT OR .15

A diurnal effect due to the dayside-nightside difference in compression by the solar wind of the geomagnetic field causes a small variation of the order of 3 nT [Ref. 4].

b. Disturbed Variation Fields

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Disturbed variation fields are geomagnetic field variations that appear to be the result of interplanetary environmental changes and do not possess a simple periodicity. These variations include ionospheric disturbances, the aurora, geometric stores, and geomagnetic micropulsations.

An <u>ionospheric</u> <u>disturbance</u> is a departure from the normal behavior of the ionosphere.

Solar flare effects (SFE) are magnetic disturbances produced by X-rays emitted from the solar flare. SFE's usually have a rapid onset, typically a few minutes in duration, followed by a slower return to normal. The entire event lasts on the order of an hour (Reid). [Ref. 12]

<u>Auroras</u> are caused by the precipitation of charged particles down magnetic field lines into the atmosphere and can be one of the brightest visual phenomena in the sky. The more intense and active auroras occur with geomagnetic disturbances and greatly increase ionization as well as creating the spectactular visual displays. [Ref. 4]

Geomagnetic storms are due to a change in the dynamic pressure of the solar wind. A typical storm begins with a compression of the magnetic field by an increase in solar wind dynamic pressure called a <u>sudden commencement</u> (SC), which increases the magnetic field (Ine so-called "gradual storm" begins with a gradual increase in field strength). The increase in field strength is on the order of several tens of nanoTeslas (nT) and takes about one to

six minutes to rise. If a disturbance starts with an SC but lacks the succeeding stages of a storm it is referred to as a sudden inpulse (SI). Following the SC, the field remains compressed for two to eight hours in the initial phase of The main phase follows the initial phase. the storm. Over a period of hours to a day a westward ring current is set up at a distance of several earth radii whose magnetic field leads to a decrease in field strength on the order of 100 This decrease overshoots the aquilibrium field strength nT. and leads into the recovery phase of a day or longer where the field returns towards its prestorm strength as the ring currents gradually dissipate [Ref. 4], (Matsushita) A magnitude-time graph of a typical geomagnetic [Ref. 13]. storm is shown in Figure 1.7.

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Figure 1.7 Typical Midlatitude Geomagnetic Storm

<u>Geomagnetic micropulsations</u> are rapid fluctuations in the surface magnetic field with periods of about 0.2 seconds to 10 minutes (frequencies about 0.0016 to 5.0 Hz). These are observed as a type of geomagnetic disturbance by ground based magnetometers [Ref. 4]. Micropulsations will be discussed in depth later.

6. Elements of the Magnetic Field Vector

The geomagnetic field vector is measured or characterized at any point by its direction and magnitude. This can be done in terms of some set of three independent parameters such as two direction angles and the magnitude, or three perpendicular components. [Ref. 4]

The system of coordinates commonly employed for describing the geomagnetic field on the surface of the earth is shown in Figure 1.8. The field is measured in terms of local (geodetic) coordinates with respect to True North.

The various coordinates are referred to as <u>magnetic</u> <u>elements</u> and are defined as follows:

B: Total Field Intensity (the symbol <u>P</u> is also used)

H: Horizontal Component

X: Northward, or North-South Component

I: Eastward, or East-West Component

Z: Bownward, or Vertical Component

<u>**D**</u>: Declination or magnetic variation. This is the angle between \underline{X} and \underline{H} and is measured positive eastward.

I: Inclination or dip angle. This is the angle between \underline{H} and \underline{B} and is neasured positive downward.



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II. INTRODUCTION TO MAGNETIC ANONALY DETECTION (MAD)

A. DEFINITION OF A MAGNETIC ANOMALY

A magnetic anomaly is defined as any spatial variation or disturbance in the geomagnetic field which is due to local causes. Anomalies can be caused by waves, ore deposits, sea mounts, and magnetized objects such as surface ships and submarines (Anderson) [Ref. 14]. For the purposes of this research, magnetic anomalies due to a simple dipole field, such as those generated by submarines, will be regarded as signals, while other anomalies will be regarded as noise and will be discussed later.

B. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE MAGNETIC DETECTION OF SUBMARINES

1. Early Detection Systems

Attempts at finding submerged submarines by sensing disturbances in the geomagnetic field date back as least as far as World War I. In 1918, Earnest Merritt, at the Naval Experimental Station, New London studied the use of a fixed coil type of detector for use in moving boats and airplanes (Slichter). [Ref. 15]

MAD, originally known as Magnetic Airborne Detector, and now called Magnetic Anomaly Detection, hai its beginnings as an airborne ASW sensor in late 1940 and early 1941.

Anomalies in the geomagnetic field caused by the presence of submarines, are on the order of one to a few nT (gammas) in magnitude. This is quite small compared to the magnitude of the field itself (30000 - 60000 nT). Two methods are generally employed to measure this small

disturbance. One is to use a <u>gradiometer</u> which measures the spatial rate of change of the magnetic field or its <u>gradient</u>. The second method, and the one presently used by U.S. Navy aircraft is to use a <u>magnetometer</u> to directly measure changes in the magnitude of the magnetic field.

The British investigated the use of a gradiometer for submarine detection, and by early 1941, had developed a two-coil gradiometer system which could detect a submarine at a range of 200 feet under favorable conditions. This range was considered to be too small to be of operational value and work on such a system was terminated when a magnetometer system showed promise (Coleman). [Ref. 16]

By late 1940, Victor V. Vacquier of the Gulf Research and Development Company had developed a sensitive <u>saturable core</u> magnetometer intended for geophysical (mineral) prospecting. The Vacquier magnetometer became the basis for further MAD development. The Airborne Instrument Laboratory of Columbia University continued the investigation of means of localizing submerged submarines by MAD.

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The simplest saturable core or fluxgate magnetometer consists of a saturable or ferromagnetic core around which a coil of wire is wrapped (see Figure 2.1). This coil carries a sinusoidal current, I(t), which is large enough to saturate the core during part of each cycle. The inductance of the coil will change as a function of the magnetization of the core. The core magnetization, in turn, depends on the instantaneous current in the coil, and, if present, the external magnetic field.

In the absence of an externally applied magnetic field, magnetization as a function of exciting current is symmetric around I=0 (Figure 2.2). An external magnetic field parallel to the core's axis will change the magnetization of the core and shift the magnetization curve. This



Figure 2.1 Element of Fluxgate Magnetometer

change will cause an asymmetry which can be sensed by analyzing the harmonic content of the signal. The coil can be combined with a stabilizer system, which keeps the detector element (coil) aligned with the geomagnetic field.

This was the basis of the MAD magnetometers used in World War II such as the AN/ASQ-1, ASQ-1A, and ASQ-2 [Ref. 16].

The fluxgate magnetometer measures only the component of the external field parallel to the axis of the ferromagnetic core. In order to measure the total field in this fashion it is necessary to align the ferromagnetic core along the earth's magnetic field or by using mutually



Figure 2.2 Magnetization Versus Exciting Current

perpendicular (orthogonal) cores. Precision requirements made this type of system difficult to realize during World War II but it has since found many years of operational usage and has found widespread use in geophysical exploration work and satellite mapping of the geomagnetic field.

2. Early Operational Usage

During World War II MAD provided a passive method of detection and tracking of submerged submarines. Within its range (then on the order of 500 feet) MAD gave a measure of surprise to the attacking aircrew. Until the first attack was delivered the crew of the submerged submarine might not even be aware of the aircraft hunting it.

Operational deployment of MAD began on a limited basis in December, 1941 with the installation of the early Mark I MAD in a blimp at Naval Air Station Lakehurst, New Jersey [Ref. 16].

By the end of 1942, MAD was operational on board PBY Catalina aircraft, nicknamed "Madcats." Even though MAD was operational at this time, it was not until February, 1944 that an initial contact by NAD led to the sinking of a submarine.

During February, 1944 , the Madcats of Patrol -Squadron 63 were assigned to fly a MAD barrier patrol of the Straits of Gibraltar. On 24 February 1944, a Madcat of VP-63 detected U-761 by use of MAD and commenced tracking to confirm the contact as a moving target. An attack was conducted in conjunction with another Catalina, 4 NO destroyers, and eventually two other aircraft, and U-761 was U-392 was sunk after a similar MAD contact on 16 sun k. March, and on 5 May, the third successful attack on a U-boat resulting from an initial MAD contact took place when U-731 was sunk (OEG No. 51, Price). [Ref. 17, 18]

The attacks at the Straits of Gibraltar demonstrated that though MAD as a limited search rate, there are scenarios where it can be employed effectively as a search sensor, such as providing a blockade across a restricted area without the presence of surface craft (DEG No. 54) [Ref. 19].

3. Curient Systems

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The magnetometer system in current operational use is the optically pumped magnetometer. The optically pumped magnetometer measures the external magnetic field by making use of the fact that when an atom is immersed in a magnetic field, its energy levels are split. This is known as the Zeeman effect. For the fields of interest, the amount of splitting of the levels is proportional to the intensity of the magnetic field. By measuring the separation between the levels the magnitude of the magnetic field can be determined.

This type of magnetometer usually makes use of Cesium or Rubidium vapors, or Helium gas. The current operational MAD system, the AN/ASQ-81, is a Helium gas optically pumped magnetometer.

In an optically pumped magnetometer (see Figure 2.3), the sample vapor or gas (such as Helium) is collected into an absorption cell. Circularly polarized light is passed through the cell giving up some of its energy in exciting or pumping the electrons of the sample gas to higher energy levels. These electrons then fluoresce to lower, metastable energy states. This is 'optical pumping.' A detector monitors the degree of optical pumping by measuring the transparency of the gas cell.



Figure 2.3 Metastable Helium Magnetometer

The actual separation of the energy levels is measured by applying a weak R. F. field which redistributes the electrons among the ground state sublevels. These transitions will only occur when the R. F. field has a particular frequency (called the Larmor frequency) which is proportional to the separation between the levels and therefore to the external magnetic field [Ref. 20]. Thus measurement of this frequency yields a direct value of the magnetic field.

4. Future Developments

Optically pumped magnetometers are the most sensitive sensor for fleet usage today. Increasing capability to make use of the phenomenon of superconductivity will yield MOT e sensitive MAD SAD SOTS. Superconducting Quantum Interference Devices (SOUIDS) which of make use the Josephson effect have a theoretical sensitivity of 10-7 nT as opposed to the theoretical value of 0.001 nT and the operationally realized value of 0.01 nT in current fleet systems (Chilton) [Ref. 20]. Field changes on the order of 10-5 nT have actually been measured. This SQUIDS are used in both superconducting magnetometers, and superconducting gradiometers.

A Josephson junction consists of a thin layer of insulator between two superconductors. This junction has the property that a current can flow across it without developing a voltage up to some maximum current. A voltage is developed for all current values greater than the maximum current.

In a superconducting magnetometer a superconducting ring containing a pair of Josephson junctions is used to measure the amount of magnetic flux penetrating the loop. This system is a vector magnetometer which measures variations in only one field component.
By using more than one superconducting loop, it is possible to measure magnetic field gradients, and construct a superconducting gradiometer. This is also a component, or vector, sensor.

These instruments have been used extensively in the laboratory and to some extent in geophysical work, but considerable engineering problems remain to be solved before operational Navy use can be contemplated.

C. MAD SIGNAL AND BANDPASS

1. Source of the Signal

The MAD signal results from moving a magnetometer through the magnetic field of a submarine, which can be approximated by the field of a magnetic dipole. Figure 2.4 depicts the formation of a submarine caused anomaly.

The magnetic moment of an object in the earth's magnetic field can be due to permanent magnetization, magnetization induced by the earth's magnetic field, or a combination of both. In the case of a submarine hull both causes are present with a small amount of permanent magnetization produced by hull stress in metal components during construction and stress caused by submarine diving and surfacing. This, however, is a minor contribution. The most important constituent of the submarine magnetic moment is due to magnetization induced in the hull by the presence of the geomagnetic field. [Ref. 21]

The induced field of a submarine depends on the effective permeability along the vertical, athwartships, and longitudinal axes of the submarine. This information , taken together with the strength and dip angle of the geomagnetic field, yields a fairly precise calculation of the magnetic anomaly produced by the submarine. 'Deperming'



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Figure 2.4 Pormation of Submarine Caused Magnetic Anomaly (Simplified View Near Equator)

of the submarine hull cancels out the permanent hull magnetization leaving the induced magnetization as the principal signal source. [Ref. 21]

The MAD signal is approximated as the projection of the submarine dipole field onto the geomagnetic field vector. This approximation is good because the magnitude of the dipole field is very much smaller than the magnitude of the geomagnetic field (a few nanoTeslas as opposed to approximately 50000 nT). Therefore, whenever the dipole field is perpendicular to the earth's field a region of zero signal will result. The signal recorded by the AN/ASQ-81 or other MAD equipment is a mapping along the aircraft's flight path of this signal. Figure 2.5 qualitatively describes some aspects of the MAD signal.

2. Anderson Functions

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The submarine anomaly signal shape is a function of the dip angle of the geomagnetic field, the magnetic heading of the aircraft, magnetic heading of the submarine dipole, and the lateral range between the aircraft and the submarine. These factors detwermine the 'A' coefficients for the Anderson functions below.

In 1949, J. E. Anderson of the Naval Air Development Center determined that the MAD signal, obtained along any course, consisted of a linear combination of three basic components. Different shaped signals could by changing the proportional contribution of these basic components. The mathematical representation of these components are now referred to as the Anderson functions. Using the dimensionless parameter 'b' (defined as the distance traveled along the aircraft track divided by the slant range at closest point of approach (CPA), b=0 at CPA) the anomaly can be represented by



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Figure 2.5 Qualitative Aspects of MAD Signal

or Bs = $-\frac{N}{23}$ [A0 f0 (b) + A1 f1 (b) + A2 f2 (b)] (2-1b)

where M = magnetic moment of target dipole Z = lateral range between target and plane at CPA

 $f0(b) = \frac{1}{(b^2 + 1)^{5/2}}$

$$f(b) = \frac{b}{(b^2 + 1)}$$

 $f_2(b) = \frac{b^2}{(b^2 + 1)}$

The strength of the detected signal is seen to fall off as the cube of the distance between the aircraft and the target.

By analyzing the functions and their coefficients, it can be shown that the optimum orientation for maximum anomaly signal detection is when the aircraft, target dipole, and geomagnetic field are lined up together as closely as possible. Specifically, this occurs when the submarine moment and the aircraft's track are oriented North-South. [Ref. 14, 21]

The Fourier transform of the component functions were taken to determine the frequency distribution of energy in the MAD signal. The anomaly signal components are shown in Figures 2.6 through 2.8 (Anderson) [Ref. 14]. The Fourier transforms of the signal components with a platform velocity of 150 knots are shown in Figure 2.9.



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Figure 2.6 Basic MAD Component f0(b)



Figure 2.7 Basic MAD Component fl(b)



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Figure 2.8 Basic MAD Component f2(b)

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Figure 2.9 Frequency Spectrum (Fourier Transform) of MAD Signal Components

3. The MAD Filter Bandpass

The MAD signal, being a transient, is essentially a broadband (as opposed to a discrete frequency) signal. The frequency spectra of energy content shows how the signal is contained in a certain frequency range. In order to screen out unwanted noise, bandpass filtering is used in processing magnetic anomaly detections.

The major factors influencing the determination of an optimum MAD filter frequency are aircraft speed and the slant range from the aircraft to the target at CPA. Factors exerting a minor influence include dip angle, aircraft heading, and target dipole orientation.

The range in frequency variation is about an octave, with the higher values occuring when the passes are made parallel to the axis of the dipole and the lower when the pass is perpendicular to the dipole. Anderson empirically determined that the center frequency of the filter is given by

f =	*	$\frac{0-4}{z}$				(2-2)	
		where	f	= f	requency in	Hertz Ocity in	f+ /ea/
		and	Ž	= q = q	reatest ant: ange in fee	icipated	CPA

The ASQ-81 Bandpass Filter has highpass settings of 0.04, 0.06, 0.08, and 0.1 Hz, and lowpass settings of 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, and 2.0 Hz (Orion Service Digest 26) [Ref. 22]. There are no recommended settings for normal operation since background noise varies. The filter characteristics for the 0.06 to 0.6 Hz settings are shown in Figure 2.10 (Orion Service Digest 28) [Ref. 23]. The figure is a representation of the adjustable band pass filter of the ASQ-81 by itself. Other parts of the ASQ-81 system add in an additional high pass filter which adds another 12 dB/octave roll off to the low frequency end in Figure 2.10. Thus Figure 2.10 would represent the characteristics of the entire ASQ-81 system if the roll off of 36 dB/octave is changed to 48 dB/octave. [Ref. 24]



Figure 2.10 ASQ-81 Filter Characteristics: 0.06 - 0.6 Hz

Using equation 2-2, the center frequency for a MAD signal with a CPA slant range of 300 feet and aircraft velocity of 220 knots is 0.49 Hz. Using a lowpass filter setting above 0.6 Hz would not be very useful.

One reason the ASQ-81 filter extends up to 2.0 Hz instead of just 0.6 Hz is the following. The early Service Test Engineering Model (STEM) ASQ-81 that preceeded the current ASQ-81 production model had two bandpass filters, one adjustable from .04 to .6 Hz, and the other fixed at .75 to 10 Hz. During tests, the .75 to 10 Hz channel proved to be helpful in monitoring the STEM ASQ-81 "system" noise level. During design reviews for the production ASQ-81, it was decided that it might be useful to retain the ability to monitor "system" noise. In order to do this easily, the .75 to 10 Hz band was dropped and a 2 Hz position was added to the adjustable filter. [Ref. 24]

The center frequency at 1200 feet and 160 knots is .09 Hz. Consequently, the highpass filter settings could affect slower, longer range MAD detections.

The choice of the highpass (lower end of bandpass) settings have to be made after considering the noise present at time of system operation.

III. SOURCES OF MAD NOISE

A. INTRODUCTION

On a practical level MAD noise is defined as magnetic disturbances falling within the MAD passband (0.04 to 2.0 Hz, or since 0.6 Hz is the normal upper limit, 0.04 to 0.6 Hz) and having an amplitude greater than 0.01 nanoTeslas (the system sensitivity of the AN/ASQ-S1 MAD system).

MAD noise sources can be divided into the following categories:

-Equipment Noise

-Aircraft Platform Noise

-Aircraft Manuever Noise

-Gradient Noise Due to Aircraft Motion Through the Geomagnetic Field

-Geologic Noise

-Noise from Wind Waves and Swells

-Geomagnetic Noise

B. SENSOR, PLATFORM AND MANUEVER NOISE

Sensor noise is the self-noise generated by the operation of the equipment itself. This can be partially due to the fact that the detector element is missligned with respect to the geomagnetic field vector. Changes in lamp intensity, photodetector noise and noise in the electronic circuits can also contribute to sensor noise [Ref. 21]. The self-noise limitation of the ASQ-81 is 0.01 nT.

Platform noise is generated by components fixed to the aircraft in the vicinity of the sensor [Ref. 23]. Permanent, induced and eddy-current magnetic fields are

associated with the airframe. Permanent magnetic fields are due to aircraft structure or equipment having ferromagnetic parts. This field changes its orientation with respect to the geomagnetic field vector as the aircraft manuevers, causing field fluctuations near the magnetometer.

Platform noise is also induced in aircraft ferromagnetic structures by the geomagnetic field. Similarly, eddy-currents are induced in aircraft skin, ribs, and frames, and these currents, in turn, cause additional magnetic fields. Thus, rapid aircraft manuevers will induce changes in the magnetic field sensed by the magnetometer.

Platform noise in aircraft mounted sensors is countered by applying equal and opposite magnetic fields to the sensor in a process called compensation. Towed MAD systems are essentially free from this type of noise.

C. GRADIENT NOISE

Gradient noise can be divided into turn noise and noise due to changes in altitude.

Turn noise is a problem when 'MAD trapping' or using MAD for tracking a target. The earth's magnetic field has a horizontal gradient (in this case the magnitude varying with latitude). As the aircraft moves in the direction of the gradient the field strength changes. The noise due to a MAD trapping or hunting circle is centered in frequency at the reciprocal of the time taken to complete one revolution. In the case of a two-minute circle, the noise would be centered at 0.00333 Hz, well below the filter used in the ASQ-81. The horizontal gradient noise due to flying a cloverleaf pattern, for the most part, also falls below the MAD passband. [Ref. 21]

Vertical gradient noise is due to changes in sensor altitude. An altitude gradient of up to 0.005 to 0.01 nT per foot exists in the earth's main field. In areas of geological anomalies this gradient is even larger. Fast altitude or aircraft pitch changes can cause a magnetic field fluctuation of sufficient amplitude to be of concern. To avoid vertical gradient noise, altitude compensation equipment is used. [Ref. 23]

D. ENVIRONMENTAL NOISE

Magnetic noise from sources existing in the natural environment include geologic noise, temporal variation in the earth's magnetic field, and noise due to ocean waves and swells.

Geologic noise has its source in naturally occuring magnetic anomalies caused by magnetic material present in the earth's crust. When the sensor passes over geological anomalies, the relative motion causes a MAD-like signal to be recorded. Geologic noise is usually more pronounced in shallow water as the sensor is much closer to the source of the noise. Geological magnetic anomalies are often associated with such oceanographic features as seamounts and ocean ridges.

Sea water is a conducting medium which is transported by the physical motion of water waves in the presence of the geomagnetic field. This motion induces currents in the sea. These currents give rise to secondary magnetic fields, which add vectorially to the quasistatic, geomagnetic field (Weaver) [Ref. 25]. These fields can be detected at significant distances above the sea surface and fall off exponentially with altitude. Figure 3.1 is a plot for several surface wave periods of the induced magnetic field per meter amplitude of the surface wave. These induced fields can be a problem at the low altitudes where MAD is used.



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E. GEOMAGNETIC NOISE

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Temporal variations in the earth's magnetic field with frequencies in the MAD bandpass and amplitudes greater than 0.01 nT have become known as <u>geomagnetic noise</u> in the MAD literature.

Quiet daily variations, such as the Sq and L variations, have periods sufficiently long to fall far below the MAD passband.

Geomagnetic storms have been discussed previously. Rapid fluctuations with high amplitude and falling within the MAD passband occur in connection with geomagnetic storms.

<u>Geomagnetic micropulsations</u> comprise the last category of geomagnetic noise to be discussed.

1. Geomagnetic Micropulsations

Geomagnetic micropulsations are rapid fluctuations of the earth's magnetic field with periods from 0.2 seconds to 10 minutes and amplitudes from about 0.1 nT to as high as a few tens of nT's. These fluctuations are caused by electromagnetic perturbations propagating in the magnetosphere as hydromagnetic waves (Nishida). [Ref. 26]

Micropulsations are classified by morphology, that is, by examining periods, amplitudes, times of occurence and other observed characteristics. Micropulsations have been placed into two broad categories: <u>irregular</u> and <u>continuous</u>. The irregular pulsations are represented by the symbol Pi, and the continuous pulsations by Pc. Table II shows the breakdown by period of the various micropulsation classes.

It can be seen that for MAD geomagnetic noise the lower frequency Pc1, Pc2, Pc3, and Pi1 pulsations are of interest.

TABLE II

Geomagnetic Micropulsation Classes

NOTATION	Period (Sec)	AVERAGE_AMPLITUDE (nT)
Pc1	0.2 - 5.0	0,05 - 0.1
PC2		
PC J DC H		
Pc5	150 - 600	<u> </u>
₽ 1 1	1 - 40	0.05 - 0.1
P12	40 - 150	1 - 5
		(alter Jacobs)

Pc1 pulsations are regular sinusoidal oscillations with periods normally falling in the 0.3 to 4 second (0.25 to 3.33 Hz frequency) range. Pc1's may start as separate bursts and gradually develop into a series of pulsations which could last for hours. They may also occur as consecutive groups of pulsations with sharply varying frequencies. The average amplitude of Pc1's is 0.05 to 0.1 nT and they tend to have a single well defined frequency. Pc1 pulsations with frequency less than 0.5 Hz are more common at high latitudes than at mid latitudes. These pulsations occur in the daytime in the auroral zone, and at night and early morning hours in lower latitudes. Pc1's are characteristic of the guiet and weakly disturbed states of the geomagnetic field and show an increase in activity one to two hours before, and four to seven days after, a magnetic storm. [Ref. 6]

Pc2 and Pc3 pulsations are grouped together in most characteristics. The amplitudes of the oscillations are usually under 0.5 nT and the typical frequency range is 0.03 to 0.2 Hz. These pulsations are normally found during the day with their activity reaching a maximum around noon. Pc3 pulsations show a seasonal variation with a minimum of activity occuring during winter.

Pc4 and Pc5 are large amplitude fluctuations, but fall below the frequency band of interest for MAD.

Pi1 pulsations have an irregular form with an average amplitude of 0.01 to 0.1 nT and a frequency mainly in the 0.10 to 0.17 Hz range. Spectral analysis of these pulsations show a braod band of frequencies. Pi1 amplitudes have maximum values in the auroral zones, with the intensity of the pulsations decreasing with decreasing latitude. Pi1's are normally observed in the late night and early morning hours, and show an increase in activity with increased geomagnetic field disturbance. [Ref. 6]

Geomagnetic micropulsations can be observed anywhere on the globe, at various times of day and year, and in both quiet and disturbed geomagnetic field conditions.

IV. METHODS OF EVALUATING GEOMAGNETIC ACTIVITY

A. INTRODUCTION

Previous chapters have defined geomegnetic activity as it applies to Magnetic Anomaly Detection. In this chapter, methods of evaluating that activity will be examined, including methods currently in use by the fleet.

B. GEOMAGNETIC INDICES

A geomagnetic index is simply a measure used to quantify and describe time variations of the earth's magnetic field resulting from solar-terrestrial relationships. These indices are commonly used to express the intensity and depict the character of geomagnetic activity throughout the day.

For the most part, geomagnetic indices developed as range indices, measuring the difference between the high and low values for different field components measured during the day by magnetic observatories (Lincoln) [Ref. 27]. Most current indices are of the range type, but other indices have been developed which are more subjective or qualitative in nature.

Geomagnetic indices are designated by a letter code such as: C, Ci, Cp, C9, Q, R, W measure, Dst, K, Ks, Kp, ak, Ak, ap, and Ap. There are additonal indices in use.

The C, Ci, Cp, and C9 indices are daily magnetic field character figures. The C index is the daily character figure for a single observatory. In this scale, C=0 indicates a quiet day, C=1 a moderately disturbed day, and C=2 a heavily disturbed day. The daily international character figure, Ci, is the arithmetic mean of the C indices reported by participating observatories around the world. Cp, the daily planetary character figure, is similar to Ci, except that it is derived from the values of Kp and ap. C9 is a contracted scale for Ci an Cp with single digit values ronning from 0 to 9 (Bartels). [Ref. 28].

The Q and R indices are quarter-hourly and hourly range indices respectively, taken at high latitude stations only.

The W measure is an index of the equatorial electrojet. Dst is a measure of ring current effect. They are both amplitude indices. [Ref. 27]

1. X. a. and A Indices

The K, Ks, Kp, ak, Ak, ap, and Ap indices comprise a group of related 3-hour range indices. The K index is a single station code using a quasi-logarithmic scale from 0 to 9 to measure geomagnetic activity. The value of K is determined by first determining the difference between the lowest and highest deviations from the regular daily variation (Sq) during a 3-hour period. This range (in nT) is converted to the K scale based on the historical activity ranges at the particular observatory involved [Ref. 27]. The conversion for the Fredericksburg, Virginia observatory is given in Table III. This conversion can also be applied to the USAF/NOAA observatory in Boulder, Colorado [Ref. 29].

The Ks index is a standardized K index which is freed from local variations and is then used to determine the planetary 3-hour index, Kp.

The equivalent three-hour-range, ak, is a conversion of the K index as shown in Table IV. In order to detemine the units of ak for a particular observatory, divide the lower range limit of K=9 by 250. Thus for Fredericksburg and Boulder, ak is in 2-nT units.

TABLE III

Conversion from Range to K for Fredericksburg, Va.

	Range(nT)
	15 - 10
	20 - 40
	$\frac{40}{70} = \frac{70}{120}$
	$\frac{120}{200} = \frac{200}{330}$
L .	330 - 500 >500

10123456789

(after Lincoln)

TABLE IV

Equivalent Range ak for Given K

K 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 ak 0 3 7 15 27 48 80 140 240 400 (after Lincoln)

Ak is the equivalent daily amplitude and is the average of the eight daily ak values at a particular observatory. This index is promulgated using the name of the observatory, the Ak index for Fredericksburg is known as the A-Fredericksburg or A-Fred index.

The equivalent planetary amplitude, ap, is determined from the Kp index in a fashion similar to that of determining ak from the K indices. The eight ap values for a given day can then be averaged into the daily equivalent planetary amplitude Ap. These two indices are given in 2-nT units.

C. GEOMAGNETIC INDICES IN FLEET USE

1. Current Usage

Geomagnetic indices of interest in connection with MAD operations are the K, Ak, and Ap indices.

Fleet operators utilize the "alpha Index' for perdicting geomagnetic activity over the entire world [Ref. 30]. This index is promulagated by the Fleet Numerical Ocenaographic Center, Monterey, California, in the environmental briefings received by aircrew personnel. This index is the Ap index as sent out from the Space Environmental Services Center, Boulder, Colorado in the Joint USAF, NOAA Report of Solar and Geophysical Activity [Ref. 31].

The Boulder K index is available to interested parties by telephone recording and in the WWV and WWVH radio broadcasts and is therefore available to fleet users [Ref. 32].

The Ak index for the Fredericksburg, Virginia observatory has been used in studies of geomagnetic activity as applied to Magnetic Anomaly Detection [Ref. 33].

2. Theoretical Applicability of A and K Indices to MAD

With the widest useful filter settings, the MAD bandpass ranges from 0.04 to 0.6 Hz (1.7 to 25 seconds in period). As such, in order for a geomagnetic index to be directly applicable for MAD use, it should be sensitive to that frequency range.

The K indices, and the K-derived A indices, are not especially sensitive to the MAD range. Mayaud [Ref. 34] indicates that these indices are mainly sensitive to fluctuations whose periods are much longer than the lower end of the frequency ge analyzed, that is, a frequency corresponding to a period of 45 minutes (0.0004 Hz).

One reason for this lack of sensitivity for MAD bandpass geomagnetic noise is that the amplitude of geomagnetic fluctuations varies inversely with frequency, so that the amplitude of the fluctuation increases as the as the frequency decreases. It can therefore be seen that the fluctuations with periods of an hour or greater largely determine the variation range used to calculate the K index. The activity driving the K and A indices, will, because of band pass filtering, not even be observed by the MAD system, and the activity of interest to MAD might not influence the K or A indices at all. It can be concluded that there is no direct physical link between MAD geomagnetic noise and either the K or A indices. [Ref. 35]

- 3. Experimental Correlation of A and K Indices with MAD Band Noise
 - a. ASQ-10A Study

Brennan and Smits [Ref. 33] found that geomagnetic micropulsation activity was recorded at their ASQ-10A MAD magnetometer site in Maryland, when the A-Fredericksburg index was greater than 25. This occured everytime they were recording data with A-Fred greater than 25. It is important to note that they observed additional activity during some periods when A-Fred was less than 25.

The Brennan and Smits study tends to validate the use of the A indices as at least qualitative indications of geomagnetic noise in the MAD bandpass. Their study, however, was specific to the ASQ-10A magnetometer system which has a sensitivity of 0.1 nT as opposed to the 0.01 nT sensitivity of the ASQ-81 system. The effect of the ASQ-10 sensitivity is to filter out most Pc1 pulsations. As Pc1 pulsations do not correlate well with the A and K indices, the filtering out of these pulsations would tend to increase the reliability of the A-Fred or Ap indices as measures of MAD geomagnetic noise. Mason [Ref. 36] stated that the "occurence of Pc1 is well known to be associated with low Kp values." It should be noted that an operational drawback of the filtering out of Pc1 pulsations by the ASQ-10A is that the system also filters out valid signals of less than 0.1 nT amplitude.

While information has been presented that suggests the the A-Fred index can be useful for MAD geomagnetic noise evaluation for the AN/AS2-10A system, sufficient data was not presented to draw conclusions for index usage with the AN/AS2-81 system.

b. ASQ-81 Study

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For two weeks in April 1976, Naval Air Development Center personnel operated a geomagnetic observatory at the Atlantic Undersea Test and Evaluation Center in the Bahamas. The primary magnetometer used for this observatory was the ASQ-81 magnetometer. One purpose of this observatory was to compare the K index (as determined by the San Juan Observatory) with geomagnetic activity in the MAD band pass. The conclusion of this study was that the K-San Juan index did not correlate with geomagnetic noise in the MAD band pass. [Ref. 37]

We have undertaken a correlation analysis using the Fisher Z transformation [Ref. 38] of the NADC data furnished to us by Ochadlick. The data used is listed in Tables V and VI.

Observed	AUTEC Dat	a and In	dices,	April 1	1-18,	1976.
D 	IOCOCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC		Juan Juan NNOTTONMNNNNOCOTOOTTTTMMNOOTNOTTOOTTOO		Ma Ampi Ocha	ma ma

TABLE V

• attititinnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnn b	2000000000000000000000000000000000000	K-San Juan 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0	๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛	Maximum Amplo.16 0.0057 0.0057 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.000000

Observed AUTEC Data and Indices, April 19-24, 1976.

TABLE VI

The largest peak-to-peak fluctuations observed on the ASQ-81 magnetometer in a three hour period was compared to the K-San Juan index for that period. Data points with fluctuations greater than 1.0 nT were deleted as the observatory did not record that information. The sample coefficient of linear correlation was 0.34 with the .95 confidence interval for the actual correlation coefficient

being from 0.14 to to 0.52. Sample size was 86. This indicates that there is at most a weak correlation between the observed data and the K-San Juan index. A much greater correlation would be required for the K index to be of any significant value for MAD operational use.

The coefficient of correlation has values from -1.0 to 1.0. A value of -1.0 or 1.0 indicates perfect negative or positive correlation, respectively. A value of zero signifies no correlation at all.

A similar correlation analysis against the Ap index was conducted. The sample correlation coefficient was 0.51 with the .95 confidence interval for the actual coefficient of correlation being from 0.32 to 0.65. Again, this signifies that only a weak correlation was observed.

The weak correlation between observed geomagnetic activity and the K-San Juan index suggests that this index would not be very useful in describing MAD geomagnetic noise, as this K index reflected activity similar to that in the band of interest only about one-third of the time. The stonger correlation of the Ap index indicates that it reflected activity similar to MAD geomagnetic noise about one-half of the time. This is still not a very good indication of what is going on in the MAD band pass.

c. Power Spectral Density Evaluation

As part of ongoing research at the Naval Postgraduate School, geomagnetic activity data in the range of the MAD band pass has been collected and analyzed in the form of power spectral density (PSD) curves.

A measure of MAD band activity has been developed by integrating under the PSD curve and using compromise band pass limits of 0.05 and 1.0 Hz. This type of index is discussed in depth later. Two sets of data were analyzed. One set was taken using an induction coil to measure the fluctuations in one direction during May, 1980 [Ref. 39] and August to October, 1981 [Ref. 40]. The other data set was collected using a Cesium vapor toatal field magnetometer during the July to October, 1980 period [Ref. 41].

Correlation analysis of the single-coil system data yielded a sample correlation coefficient of 0.401 for the K-Fredericksburg index, 0.180 for the A-Fredericksburg index and 0.155 for the Ap index. Sample size was 9. The .95 confidence intervals for the correlation coefficient for K-Fred, A-Fred, and Ap were -.36 to .85, -.55 to .76, and -.56 to .75, respectively. The data for this test is presented in Table VII.

TABLE VII

Single Coil RMS Noise Data and Indicas

Daty 001 Daty 000 Hauggoott: 1155542000 2222	₹ 11005555 110005555 110000 11000 11000 110000 110000 11000 11000 11000 11000 10	RMS NOISE Amplitude (nr) 0.05 0.12 0.19 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05	K - Frankinger	A-F10255577	284666771
5 Oct 81 5 Oct 81 5 Oct 81	0155 0630 1530	0.12 0.09 0.02	1 30	7777	777

The Cesium vapor magnetometer data yielded sample coefficients of correlation of 0.552, 0.374, and 0.444 for the K-Fred, A-Fred, and Ap indices, respectively. The sample size was 14. The .95 confidence intervals were for K-Fred from .03 to .84, A-Fred from -.20 to .76, and for Ap from -.12 to .79. The CS wapor magnetometer data is presented in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

Cs Vapor RMS Noise Data and Indices, Jul-Oct, 1980

10000000000000000000000000000000000000	RMS Noise Amplitude (nT) 0.00 0.05 0.05 0.04 0.05 0.04 0.05 0.04 0.05 0.04 0.05 0.04 0.05	K. Pred 22 1 22 34 4	A-Fred 31 7 6 19 19 19 17	
0630-1100 1030-1100 1100-1130 1230-1300 1300-1330	0 • 04 0 • 04 0 • 05 0 • 04 0 • 04	4 2000	177177	20000

Although the sample sizes used were too small to draw any meaningful conclusions, there is little evidence to suggest that any of the K-Fred, A-Fred, or Ap indices is a very accurate measure of geomagnetic noise in the ASQ-81 MAD band pass.

d. Correlation Conclusions

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Although some weak correlation does exist between the K indices, the A-Fred index, the Ap index and geomagnetic noise in the MAD band pass, this correlation is incidental and indirect, being the result of a correlation between the activity in the MAD band and in the lower frequency activity that influences the K and A indices. These indices are not directly influenced by activity in the MAD band. The correlation that does exist does not appear to be sufficiently high to enable these indices to yield accurate indications of the actual MAD band activity. The use of these indices for anything except the roughest qualitative estimation of active in the MAD band pass is not recommended. D. PROPOSED GEOMAGNETIC INDICES FOR MAD

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Overall geomagnetic acitivity is analyzed in both the time and frequency domains. Geomagnetic noise indices for the MAD band pass could be developed in either of these domains.

The spatial coherence of MAD geomagnetic noise has not yet been adequately determined. This information would be necessary in order to determine the number and location of mini-observatories for an operational MAD noise index.

1. Time Sories Analysis

way to develop an index of MAD geomagnetic 0n e activity would be to establish mini-observatories near bases from which MAD operations are conducted. These observatories would use ASQ-81 magnetometers or different magnetomeand could in ters with ASQ-81 filter networks, real time record the geomagnetic noise in the MAD band. A measure such as the maximum peak-to-peak (or possibly the average peak-to-peak) noise in a given time period could then be disseminated to flight craws operating in the area covered by that index. Obviously, the spatial coherence of MAD band activity is important in making such a system work. This type of mini-observatory has been suggested by References 31 and 35.

2. Frequency Domain Index

Present fleet procedures examine MAD noise such as system and manuever noise in terms of the amplitude of the fluctuation [Ref. 30]. An index of geomagnetic noise in the MAD band pass would therefore be of greatest usefulness to the fleet operator if it were in units of the amplitude of the signal as seen by the MAD equipment.

The method proposed to derive a MAD noise index in the frequency domain begins with obtaining the power spectral density of the activity in the MAD band by Fourier analysis of the time series data input from the magnetometer.

By intergrating under the PSD curve over the limits of the MAD bandpass, a value in units of amplitude² will result. Taking the square root of this value will yield an RMS amplitude. Equation 4-1 represents the derivation of this index.

MAD Index =
$$\left(\int_{1}^{u} PSD(f) df\right)^{1/2}$$
 (4-1)

where NAD Index is in nT (gammas) f = frequency (Hz) u = upper bandpass limit l = lower bandpass limit and PSD(f) = power spectral density (nT²/hz)

The characteristics of the MAD filter (the filter not being an ideal bandpass filter) could be applied prior to the integration. The integration itself could be done by either a point-by-point numerical integration or by first modelling the PSD curve by polynomial curve fitting and then integrating the polynomial over the range of the band pass. It is anticipated that this could be done in close to real time by a digital computer, possibly by a desk top computer such as the HP9845.

The type of sensor utilized could be the ASQ-81 magnetometer, other total field magnetometer, or possibly an orthogonal 3-coil system whose signals can be combined to yield the projection on the total field vector of the fluctuations. A single coil system oriented in the direction of the earth's magnetic field vector could also be used.

A three coil system which is used to yield an RMS amplitude is currently in research use at the Naval Postgraduate School.

3. Predictions of Geomagnetic Activity

The proposed indices discussed above are intended to be real time measures of the geomagnetic noise in the MAD bandpass. Whether or not such activity can be predicted ahead of time needs to be looked into.

While there is no model for the background component of geomagnetic noise, work has been done on estimating the future activity of micropulsations, notably by Fraser-Smith in the case of Pc1 pulsations [Ref. 42, 43]. By extending the prediction technique for Pc1 pulsations to the Pc2, Pc3, and Pi1 pulsations, the occurrence of geomagnetic micropulsation activity in the MAD band might be predicted. Combining this prediction with real-time solar flare information should give the capability to disseminate real-time and estimated future MAD index values to fleet users. Previous studies have led to the conclusion that the currently used geomagnetic indices are not accurate measures of geomagnetic noise in the MAD band pass. Experimental equipment has been utilized, and computer software written in order to confirm this conclusion, and to develop a replacement means of evaluating MAD geomagnetic noise.

A. EQUIPMENT CONFIGURATION

Experimental equipment, acquired as part of the Naval Postgraduate School geomagnetics research program, has been utilized in the effort to develop a usable MAD index. This equipment is in use in other projects of the geomagnetics research group. The sensors and associated equipment are set up for remote site operation with system monitoring and data analysis located at the Naval Postrgraduate School. Descriptions of the data collection system and data analysis system follow below.

1. Data Collection System

The data acquisition system illustrated in Figure 5.1 reveals the following major components:

-coil antenna sensors (3)
-preamplifi/rs (3)
-signal conditioners (amplifiers) (3)
-pulse code modulation system (1)
-radio transmitter (1)
-radio receiver (1)
-instrumentation tape recorder (1)



Figure 5.1 Data Collection System

a. Coil Antenna Sensors

Three coil sensors are used in this system. Each sensor is a self-supporting, continuously wound, noncenter-tapped coil antenna manufactured by Elma Engineering, Palo Alto, California, from about 5460 turns of 18 gauge copper magnet wire. The coils weigh approximately 50 kg each with dimensions as depicted in Figure 5.2. The dimensions of the sensor are constrained by the dimensions of the largest glass sphere that is connercially available. These spheres are used to enclose the coils during underwater experiments. The coil resistance is 120 ohms and its selfinductance is approximately 9.31 henries. The three coils are mounted orthogonaly on a nonmagnetic frame (Figure 5.3).



Figure 5.2 Sensor Dimensions

b. Preamplifier

The preamplifier used was the model 13-10A low noise ELF amplifier manufactured by Dr. Alan Phillips of SRI


Figure 5.3 Sensor Mounting Block

International. The final stage of the amplifier contains an active low-pass filter which provides a sharp cutoff for frequencies above 20 Hz. The overall preamplifier gain for inputs of less than 2.5 millivolts is 60 dB.

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c. Signal Conditioners

The signal conditioners receive the analog signals from the coil preamplifiers, amplify them on the order of 30 dB, and limits signals with peak amplitudes of 7.5 volts from entering the pulse coie modulation system.

d. Pulse Code Modulation (PCM) System

The pulse code modulation system chosen for use is one designed and manufactured by Dr. Robert Lowe, Lowecom, Inc. The system features 15 channel analog input capability and offers selectable sampling mages of 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128 samples per second. By appropriately jumpering the analog input pins, the sampling rate may be increased by a factor of 5.

The PCM system incorporates a crystal oscillator, and associated CMOS integrated circuitry to develop the clocking pulses, and a 16 channel CMOS analog multiplexer, a 16 channel, 12 bit CMOS analog to digital converter and associated circuitry to provide the pulse coding. The crystal clock oscillator operating at a frequency of 24.576 kHz produces a square wave output with a loss rate of 1 bit in 10°. The clock pulses gate the analog multiplexer, analog to digital converter and associated follow on circuitry that form the pulse code words. The basic output is a Bi-phased pulse coded signal.

The data is organized in frames. Each frame is headed by a sync code word which is followed sequentially by the pulse coded samples from PCM channels 1 through 15. The sync code word is a pulse coded digital word with a decimal value between 0 and 4095. This word is preselected and hardwired on the circuit board. This code word is essential to the decoding process. In the initial operation of this system, a sampling rate of 32 samples per second was utilized. Only one sample per coil per frame was analyzed, making use of PCM channels 2, 3, and 4 only.

e. Transmission and Recording

After the data has been PCM encoded, it is transmitted by a VHF radio link back to a receiver located at the Naval Postgraduate School, where it is currently recorded on an instrumentation tape recorder for later analysis.

2. Data Analysis Equipment

Currently, the recorded PCM data is played back into a PCM decoder and associated equipment which generates a nine-track 800 BPI computer tape containing the decoded sensor data. This computer tape is then input into the Naval Postgraduate School IBM 3033 computer for analysis. It is in the computer software that the sensor system transfer function is applied, spectral analysis performed, and the MAD index generated.

B. DATA ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

As was noted earlier, a mainframe computer was utilized to perform the spectral analysis, apply the transfer function, convert to power spectral density, plot the PSD and generate the RMS noise amplitude MAD index (using equation 4-1). This program is written in FORTRAN IV and is discussed in brief below. A copy of the program can be found in Appendix A.

The main program is divided into sections which perform the following functions:

-Data input

-Fourier analysis of time series data

-Application of system transfer function -Projection of field components onto total field vector -Data averaging -Curve fitting and calculation of MAD index

-Calculation and plotting of power spectral density

1. Data Input

Data input is accomplished with the aid of a subroutine package supplied by Dr. Tim Stanton of the Naval Postgraduate School Department of Oceanography. His subroutine (called 'SUBROUTINE RD') serves as a FORTRAN 'READ' statement, taking the PCM data off the computer tape and converting it into integer format with a value between 0 and 4095. The data input section of the main program takes this integer value and converts it to a 'REAL' number and normalizes it to represent a voltage value between -5.0 and +5.0 volts. This section also sorts the input data matching the PCM channel to the data array representing the appropriate coil.

2. Fourier Analysis

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The time series data is next converted to the frequency domain by utilizing a subroutine (called 'FOURT') which performs a Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). The subroutine is one available to users at the Naval Postgraduate School and utilizes the Cooley-Tukey FiT algorithm. Further information about this subroutine can be found in the program listing in Appendix A.

3. Application of Transfer Function and Total Field Projection

The next section of code applies the system transfer functions for the three coils to the frequency domain data. The transfer functions are given as straight line segments which were found by least-squares approximation. The data enters this section in amplitude units of volts, and is converted into nanoTeslas by the transfer function.

Following the application of the system transfer function to the coil data, the program next calculates the projection of this data onto the earth's magnetic field vector (total field projection). This is done by first applying the local magnetic variation (declination) to the North-South (X) and East-West (Y) coil information to determine the horizontal field component. The local magnetic dip (inclination) angle is then used to project the vertical (Z-coil) and horizontal field fluctuations onto the total field fluctuation.

4. Data Averaging

The previous program sections exist inside of a do-loop which enables the analysis of a long period of data without a prohibitive need for storage space. This 1000 includes accumulator arrays for each field component and the total field projection. The fluctuation data is converted into power prior to storage. This is done by taking the magnitude of the fluctuation component, dividing by the number of sample points, and then squaring the value. After the program passes through the averaging loop for the last time, the arithmetic average is taken for each frequency point on the arrays. At his stage the power spectrum is multiplied by the sample period to determine power spectral density.

5. MAD Index Calculation

The next section computes the RMS MAD noise index previously discussed. A polynomial curve fit is performed on

the total field PSD using an available subroutine ("CHBFT"). The resulting polynomial is then integrated over the limits of the various ASQ-81 band pass settings.

6. Plotting of Power Spectral Density

Flots of the power spectral density of each of the field components and the total field projection are generated in the last section of the program. This is done by converting the fluctuation power spectral density to decibels (dB) referenced to 1 nanoTesla² per Hertz. A Versatec plotting subroutine ('PLOTP') is then called to actually generate the plots.

C. INITIAL SYSTEM OPERATION

The NPS MAD index system was initially placed into operation with the coil sensors located in the La Mesa Village housing area near the Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, California. System checkout was accomplished in June, 1982. The full system was placed into operation on 25 July 1982 and 18 August 1982 in conjunction with similar measurements taken on the floor of Monterey Bay.

The MAD index output and power spectral density plots of the total field fluctuation for 25 July 1982, 1237-1406 local (2037-2206Z), and 18 August 1982, 0121-0250 local (0921-1050Z) and 0507-0636 local (1307-1436Z) are shown in Tables IX, X, XI, and Figures 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6 respectively.

TABLE IX

MAD Noise 2037-2206Z, 25 JUL 82, Monterey, CA

1 Gamma = 1 NanoTesla

MAD INDEX=	0.1083 GAMMAS
BANDPASS:	0.04 TO 0.20 HFRTZ
NAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.04 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	0.1169 GAMMAS
Bandpass:	0.04 TO 0.60 HERTZ
NAD INDEX=	0.0888 GAMMAS
BANDPASS:	0.06 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.06 10 0.40 HERTZ
NAD INDEX=	0.0991 GAMMAS
BAN DPASS:	0.06 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	0.0729 GAMMAS
BANDPASS:	0.08 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX# BANDPASS:	0.08 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	0.0852 GAMMAS
BAN DPASS:	0.08 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	0.10.0598 GAMMAS
BANDPASS:	0.10 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	0.0708 GAMMAS
BANDPASS:	0.10 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.10 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	9.1234 GAMMAS
BANDPASS:	0.04 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.06 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	0.1018 GAMMAS
BAN DPASS:	0.08 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX=	0.0923 GANMAS
BAN DPASS:	0.10 TO 2.00 HERTZ



TABLE X

MAD Noise 0921-1050Z, 18 LUG 82, Monterey, CA

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1 Gauna = 1 NanoTesla

MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.3644 GANNAS 0.04 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.04 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.4004 GAMMAS 0.04 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.05 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BAN DPASS:	0.05 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEN= BANDPASS:	0.06 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDĖX= Bandpass:	0.08 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.08 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BAN DPASS:	0.3025 GAMMAS 0.08 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.10 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.10 10 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= FAN DPASS:	0.2691 GAMMAS 0.10 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.4047 GANMAS G.04 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BAN DPASS:	0.3679 GANNAS 0.05 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.3339 GAMMAS 0.08 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= HANDPASS:	0.10 TO 2.00 HERTZ



TABLE XI

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MAD Noise 1307-1436Z, 18 AUG 82, Monterey, CA

1 Gamma = 1 NanoTesla

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MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.3188 GAMMAS 0.04 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.04 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.04 TC 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.2297 GAMMAS 0.05 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.05 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.05 TO 0.50 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.08 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.08 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.08 TO 0.60 HERTZ
HAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.10.1031 GAMMAS 0.10 TO 0.20 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.10 TO 0.40 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.1254 GAMMAS 0.10 TO 0.60 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.3504 GAMMAS 0.04 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.05 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS:	0.2801 GAMMAS 0.09 TO 2.00 HERTZ
MAD INDEX= BANDPASS;	0.10 TO 2.00 HEETZ



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VI. <u>CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS</u>

A. CONCLUSION

Analysis of available information regarding current geomagnetic indices and the actual level of geomagnetic noise in the MAD bandpass indicates that the currently used indices, the K and Ap indices, are not valid for MAD operations. It is therefore desirable to derive a new index which more accurately represents the geomagnetic noise at frequencies of interest in MAD operations.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS

A tentative index was developed, tested, and sample data obtained. The data analysis for the preliminary system was accomplished using a mainframe computer. It is recommended that further work include improving the index and the setting up of a system to on-line decode the incoming data, and utilizing a desk top computer such as the HP9845 to enable real time determination of the MAD noise index.

The spatial coherence of MAD geomagnetic noise should also be investigated, with possible application to noise cancellation. Additionally, the feasibility of the prior estimation of geomagnetic noise should be evaluated, possibly by using the prediction methods proposed by Fraser-Smith [Ref. 42, 43].

APPENDIX A

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THE DD LGCP END ING WITH 60 READS THE DATA FROM THE PCM FRAME CHANNEL CALL ЦL, AVERAGED. CCMTINUE IFRAME=9500 NR=19 FNR =FLOATINR) FNR =FLOATINR) DC 70 L1=1,NR THE D0 LCDP ENDING WITH STATEMENT 70 ENABLES THE PROGRAM TO PRCCESS A LARGE AMGUNT OF CATA RV REPEATING THE PROGESS IN PRCCESS A LARGE AMGUNT OF CATA RV REPEATING THE PROGESS IN PRCCESS A LARGE AMGUNT OF CATA RV REPEATING THE PROGESS IN PRCCESS A LARGE AMGUNT OF CATA RV REPEATING THE PROGESS IN THR D0 L CDP ENDING WITH STATEMENT 70 ENABLES THE PROGESS IN THR D0 L CDP ENDING WITH STATEMENT 70 ENABLES THE PROGESS IN THR D0 L CDP ENDING WITH STATEMENT 70 ENABLES THE PROGESS IN THR D0 L CDP ENDING WITH STATEMENT 70 ENABLES THE PROGESS IN THR D0 L CDP ENDING WITH STATEMENT 70 ENABLES THE PROGESS IN THR D0 L CDP ENDING WITH STATEMENT 70 ENABLES THE PROGESS IN THR 0.06H THE D0 L COP ARF THR 0.06H THE D0 L COP THR 0.06H THE SENTS THE NUMBER OF DATA SEQUENCESS TO BE AVERAGED. THR 0.06H THE SENTS THE NUMBER OF DATA SEQUENCESS TO BE AVERAGED. 5 200 20 ćĈ $\mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}$ $\cup \cup \cup \cup$

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CALL FOURT(CATA,NN, EXAMPLE 2. ONE-DIM LENGTH 64 IN FORTRA DIMENSION DATA(2,64 DO 2 I=1,64 DATA(1,1)=REAL PART DATA(2,1)=0. CALL FOURT(DATA,64,	PROGRAMMER Program by Norman Bi Rader, June 1967. Suggested by Ralpt Documentation Revis	SLBRGUTINE FOURT (DA DIMENSION DATA(1), NI DATA TWOPI/6.283185 IF(NDIM-1)920,1,1 NTOT=2 DC 2 IDIM=1,920,920 IF(NN(IDIM))920,920 IF(NN(IDIM))920,920	MAIN LGOP FCR EACH NP1=2 D0 910 ID1M=1,ND1 V N=NN(ID1M) NP2=NP1*N IF(N-1)92C,500.5	IS N A POWER OF TWO P=N NTWG=NP1 IF=1 IDIV=2 IDIV=2 IQUOT=M/IDIV IREM=M-IDIV + IQUOT IF(IQUOT-IDIV)50, 11 IF(IQUOT-IDIV)50, 11 IF(IREM)20, 12, 20 NTWC=NTWC+NTWO IFACC(IF)=IDIV IFACC(IF)=IDIV IFACC(IF)=IDIV
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H3R=W2R*WR-M2I*WI H3I=W2R*WI+M2I*WP DC 530 II=I,IIRNG,2 KMIN=II+IPAR*M IF(MMAX-NPI)430,430,440	K%IN=II KDIF=IPAR*MPAX KSTEP=4*KDIF IF(KSTEP-NT&01460.530	DC 520 KI = K MIN, NT CT, KSTEP K 2= K1 + KDI F K 3= K2 + KDI F K 4 = K3 + KDI F K 4 = K3 + KDI F	UIR=DATA(KI)+DATA(KŽ) UII=DATA(KI+I)+DATA(KŽ) UŽR=DATA(K3)+DATA(K4) UZI=DATA(K3+1)+DATA(K4) UZR=DATA(K3+1)+DATA(K4+1) UZR=DATA(K1)-DATA(K2) UJR=DATA(K1+1)-DATA(K2+1)	U4R=DATA(K3+1)-DATA(K4+1) U4T=DATA(K3+1)-DATA(K4+1) U4T=DATA(K4)-DATA(K3) GO TO 510	ŬĞR=ĎAŤĂ(K4+1)-DATA(K3+1) U4I=DATA(K3)-DATA(K4) GC_TO_510	TZR=WZR*DATA(K2)-W2I*DATA(K2+1) TZI=WZR*DATA(K2+1)+W2I*DATA(K2) T3R=WR*DATA(K3)-WI*DATA(K3+1) T3I=WR*DATA(K3+1)+WI*DATA(K3) T3I=WR*DATA(K4)-M3I*DATA(K4+1) T4I=W3R*DATA(K4)-M3I*DATA(K4+1)	UIR=DATA(KI)+T2R UII=DATA(KI)+T2R U2R=T3R+T4R U2R=T3I+T4I U3R=DATA(KI)-T2R U3I=DATA(KI)-T2R	I F I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I	U4K=141-131 U4T=13R-T4R DATA(K1)=U1R+U2R DATA(K1+1)=U114U2 DATA(K2)=U3R+U4R
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A(K2+1)=U31+U41 A(K3)=L1F-U2R A(K3+1)=U11-U21 A(K3+1)=U11-U21 A(K4+1)=U3F-U4R A(K4+1)=L31-U41 A(K4+1)=	MAX1240,540,560 ISIGN 550,560,560 PR=WR RAM RAM RAM MA MA MA MA MA MA MA MA MA	IO 410 П ИUE R = Э-ТРАК X = Р АК X = Р АХ ТО 360 М А	N LOUP FCR FACTORS NOT EQUAL TO TWO. APPLY THE TWIDDLE FAC- MA W=EXP(ISIGN+2*PI*SQRT(-1)*(JI-1)*(J2-J1)/(IFPI+IFP2)), MA V PERFORM A FOURIER TRANSFORM OF LENGTH IFACT(IF), MAKING USE MA CONJUGATE SYMMETRIES. MA	WT WO-NP2)605,7 C0,700 H = NT WC I = NT WC MA HF = NP1/2 H = NP1/2 MA MA MA MA MA MA MA MA MA MA	JIMIN-IFPI)615,640 635 JI=JIMIN,IFPI,NPI 1A=-TWCPI#FLOAT(JI-1)/FLOAT(IFP2) 1SIGN1625,620,620 1SIGN1625.620,620	PR = COS(TFETA) PR = SIN(TFETA) MATPR HSTPI HSTPI HS_JI+IFPI MA AX=JI+IFP2-IFP] MA AX=JI+IFP2-IFP] MA AX=JI+IFP2-IFP] MA
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11. MAX= J2+11. KHG - Z 11. MAX= J2+11. KHG - Z 12. Max= J2+11. KHG - Z 12. Max= J2+11. KHG - Z 12. Max= J2+11. March - J2+12. March

CON-ВΥ N E VEN, IST DIMENSION, THE 60 T0 (500, 800,900,701),ICASE NHALF=N N=N+N THE TA=-TwCP I/FLOAT(N) IF(ISIGN) 702,702,702 TFE TA=-THETA WSTPT=SIN(THETA) WSTPT=SIN(THETA) WSTPT=SIN(THETA) WSTPT=SIN(THETA) WSTPT=SIN(THETA) WSTPT=SIN(THETA) WSTPT=SIN(THETA) WSTPT=STPT WSTPT WSTPT=STPT WSTPT WSTP IN COMPLETE A REAL TRANSFORM JLGATE SYMMETRIES. I=1 12MAX=I3+NP 2-NP1 00 695 I2-I3,I2MAX,NP1 0ATA(I2!=WORK(I) 14TA(I2!!)=WORK(I.1) I=IF+1 IF=IF+1 IFP1=IFP2 IF (IFP1-NP2)610,700,700 702 710 675 680 685 686 690 €53 700

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ВΥ **DT MENS I CN** 3RD 0R 2ND THE 1=1-2 J=J-2 IF(I-IMIN)775177575765 DATA(J)=DATA(IMIN)+DATA(IMIN+1) DATA(J+1)=0. IMAX=IMIA GG TO 745 DATA(1)=DATA(1)+DATA(2) DATA(1)=DATA(1)+DATA(2) DATA(1)=0. GC TO 900 J=J-Z IF(I-IM4X)750,763,760 DATA(J)=DATA(IMIN)-CATA(IMIN+1) DATA(J+1)=0. IF(I-J)77C,780,78C DATA(J)=DATA(I) I=I-2 N REAL TRANSFORM FOR SYMMETRIES. [] +111/2. ŜT PR C, 740 SUMI = (DATA(1)-DATA(J) DIFR= (DATA(1)-DATA(J) DIFR= (DATA(1)-DATA(J) DATA(1)= (DATA(1)-DATA(J) DATA(1)= SUMR+TEMPR DATA(1)= SUMR+TEMPR DATA(J)= N ۷ COMPLETE / 511 72 C NUMINO NUMINA NUMINA 745 75 C 760 765 TEC 755

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SCHEV FUR POSE: SUBROUTINE CHBFT EVALUATES THE COEFFICIENTS OF AN MTH FRCER SUBROUTINE CHBFT EVALUATES THE COEFFICIENTS OF AN MTH FRCER POLYNOM FAL P(X)=A(1)+A(2)*X+A(3)*X**2+...+A(M+1)X**M SUCH THAT THE MAXIRUM ERROR ABS(P(X(I))-Y(I)) IS A MINIMUM OVER THE N (N.6T.M+1) SAMPLE PCINTS X(I).Y(I). I=1.2...N. THE X(I) MUST FORP A STRICTLY MONOTONIC SEQUENCE: I.e. X(I) MUST FORP A STRICTLY FORP A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICT A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICT A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICTLY A STRICTLY A STRICT MUST A STRICT A STRICT MUST A STRICT A STRICT MUST A STRICT NJX DIMENSIONED REAL#4 CHEFT (X,Y,N,A,M,RX,RH,P EACH DIMENSION PARAMETERS AB SC ISSAE Ff(IIRNG-NP1)805, 5CC,900 C0 860 I3=1,NT0T,NP2 DC 860 I2=13+NP2-NP1 DC 860 I2=13+IP N6 IWAX=12+HIP N6 IWAX=2+NP1-2 JWAX=2+ANP1-2 JWAX=2-H31820,820,810 JF(I2-13)820,820,810 JF(I2-13)820,850,830 J=JWAX+NP0 J=JWAX+NP0 J=JWAX+NP0 J=JWAX+NP0 J=JWAX+NP0 J=JWAX+NP0 J=JWAX D0 860 I=IMIN,IMAX,2 D1 860 I=IMIN,IMAX,2 D1 860 I=IMIN,IMAX,2 D2 860 I=IMIN,IMAX,2 D3 860 I=IMIN,IMAX,2 D3 860 I=IMIN,IMAX,2 D3 860 I=IMIN,IMAX,2 D4 860 I=IM **U., U**., 00 CH8F1 DESCRIPTION X - ARRAY ZÖ LOCP SUBROUTINE USÀGE: CALL NFO=NPI NPI=NP2 NPREV=N RETURN Ч END g

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444444444	44444444444 177772277227	(4 44 37777	AAAAAA	444444 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	(444444444 77737777777777777777777777777	AAA Viiv
Y -ARRAY DF CRDINATES DIMENSIONED REAL#4 Y(N) N -NUMBER CF SAMPLE POINTS (INTEGER) A -ARRAY OF THE OUTPUTTED POLYNOMIAL CCEFFICIENTS DIMENSICNED AT LEAST A(M+2) (REAL#4) M -GRDER OF DESIRED APPROXIMATING PCLYNOMIAL RX -MCRK ARRAY DIMENSIONED AT LEAST REAL#4 RX (M+2) RH -MCRK ARRAY DIMENSIONED AT LEAST REAL#4 RX (M+2) RH -INTEGER WORK ARRAY DIMENSIONED AT LEAST REAL#4 RH (M+2)	FEMARKS: THE POLYNOWIAL P(X) IS A BEST-FIT PCLYNCWIAL IN THE CHEBYSCHEVM SENSE AS DESCRIBED BY STIEFEL(NUMERICAL METHODS OF TCHEBYCHEFF APPROXIMATION) IN LANGER(ED.)."ON NUMERICAL APPROXIMATION" U.OF WISCONSIN PRESS, 1955, PP. 217-232. STIEFEL (P.221) SHOWS THAT THE PROCEDURE WUST TERMINATE AFTER MI STIEFEL (P.221) SHOWS THAT THE PROCEDURE WUST TERMINATE AFTER MI A FINITE NUMBER OF STEPS. AT EXIT THE ABSCLUTE VALUE CF A(M+1) YIELOS THAT THE PROCEDURE HAS BEEN TERMINATE FOLLOWING INDICATES THAT THE PROCEDURE HAS BEEN TERMINATEC FOLLOWING MI	NOTE: DIVIGED DIFFERENCES AND NEWTON'S INTERPOLATING FORMULA IS MULUSED FOR COMPUTING THE POLYNOMIAL COEFFICIENTS.	SUBROUTINE CHBFT(X,Y,N,A,M,RX,RH,R) REAL*4 NEXTHI INTEGER RI,RJ,R(I) DIMENSION X(I),Y(I),A(I),RX(I),RH(I) MPLUS 1=M+1 MPLUS 2=M+2 MPLUS 2=M+2	PREVH=0.0 DETERMINE INDEX VECTOR FOR INITIAL REFERENCE SET R[1)=1 R[MPLUS2)=N D=CN-1)/MPLUS1 MU	$ \begin{array}{c} 0.6 \\ 0.6 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ $	H=-H RH(I)=H CCMPUTE M+1 LEADING DIVIDED DIFFERENCES
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DEVIATION DIFFERENCES THE LAPGEST AB SOLUTE If(J-1) 9.7.7 CONTINUE IF THE REFERENCE CEVIATION IS NOT INCREASING MONOTONICALLY THEN EXIT HMAX=ABS(H) HMAX=6T.PKEVH) G0 T0 29 If(HMAX.6T.PKEVH) G0 T0 29 A(PLUS2)=-PMAX RETURN FINC THE INDEX.IM AX.AND VALUE, HIMAX, OF THE LARGEST AB SOLU FINC THE INDEX.IM AX.AND VALUE, HIMAX, OF THE LARGEST AB SOLU I 1+1) THE CIFFERENCE TO ZERC TO DETERMINE 152)/RH(MPLUS2) 152/RH(MPLUS2) 154/A, COMBINE THE FUNCTION AND DEVIATION FINC THE INDEX, IM AX, AND VALUE, HIMAX, OF ERGR FOR ALL SAMFLE PGINTS A(MPLUS2)=HMAX PREVH=HMAX IMAX=F(1) 5 DENCLUSI (II)-RX(I-J+1) AI=A(I) RHI=RH(I) A(II)=(AII-AI)/DENOM A(II)=(AHI-AI)/DENOM A(II)=(AHI-AI)/DENOM I]=I AII=AI RHI=AI RHI=RHI I=I-1 I=(I-J) 4,5,5 **PPLUSI** PLUS2)/ DC 4 J=1, PF1 I1=MPLUS2 AI1=A(11) RHI1=RH(11) I=MPLUS1 HITH H COMPUTE P HIMAX=H AI=AI1 1=11 [-<u>|</u>=] Ę. ניין ŝ 53 ŝ Q ω 4

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H -RCR OF THE POINT AN ERF шo POINT HAVING CCURS AT A REFERENCE 120 un. E.0) GU TO 115 6C TO 116 10 11 ŝ 09 Tn110 -10 TURN AREST AREST FATURN PETURN 10 .LE.R(MPLU 52)) 60 11 00 RJ=R(J) TF(I.EQ.RJ) GO TO XI=X(I) LUSI) KEK-1) 112, 12, 12 HI=V(I) GE MPLUSI) KEK-1) 112, 12, 12 HI=V(I) GE MPLUS) HMAX=ABSHI = HMAX) CONTINUE F(IMAX • EQ. R(1)) CONTINUE F(IMAX • EQ. R(1)) CONTINUE F(IMAX • CF. R(1)) C 00 **~**W \sim 2 I=1,MPLUS2 PLUS2)=IMAX T02 D=IMAX 55 D0 121 P(J)=R(J)=R(J)=R(MPLUS 6C T02 F(I)=IP 1 116 u١ 112 110 14 117 118 2 11 ŝ -Ξ N --

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