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# NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL Monterey, California





# THESIS

A Computerized Investigation Using the Method of Images to Predict the Sound Field in a Fluid Wedge Overlying a Slow Fluid Half-Space

by

Carolus Kaswandi

December 1987

Thesis Advisor: Thesis Advisor: A. B. Coppens J. V. Sanders

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A Computerized Investigation Using the Method of Images to Predict the Sound Field in a Fluid Wedge Overlying a Slow Fluid Half-Space

by

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#### ABSTRACT

Sound fields in wedge-shaped ocean layers, modeling conditions on the continental shelf, have been studied at the Naval Postgraduate School in the last few years using the method of images. These studies are carried further in the present work. The method is implemented in different environmental conditions. This thesis examines the influence of several parameters on the sound field for downslope propagation in a wedge-shaped fluid of speed of sound  $c_2$  overlying a slow bottom of speed of sound  $c_1$ . On the basis of qualitative and semi-quantitative analysis of the behavior of the pressure-depth profile for various geometrical and physical parameters, we can conclude that:

- 1. A defined distance, the "characteristic distance"  $x_0 = \pi/(2k_2 \sin \theta_0 \tan \beta)$ , where  $\cos \theta_0 = c_1/c_2$ ,  $k_2 = \omega/c_2$ , and  $\beta$  is the vertex angle of the wedge, has physical meaning as a useful scaling distance.
- 2. The distance of the source from the apex, in terms of the  $X_0$ , plays a major role in determining the downslope sound field.

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Finally, I hope that in the future this work will be useful to others by expanding their knowledge in this field.

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#### I. INTRODUCTION

#### A. SOUND PROPAGATION IN SHALLOW WATER CHANNEL

Experimental investigations of sound propagation in shallow water channels have been done by several investigators. Shallow water propagation is of interest because of the applications to coastal defense. These investigations are expensive and time consuming. The use of a computer model should provide a relatively inexpensive alternative to observation.

One of the techniques uses normal mode theory. The normal mode theory, which was introduced and developed by C. L. Perkeris [Ref. 1], gave the exact solution in water of constant depth. Further development of normal mode theory was made by L. Brekovskikh [Ref. 2], who initiated pressure as an integral involving Bessel functions and solution of the normal mode equation. Another theoretical approach to sound propagation in a horizontally stratified ocean of constant depth is given by the method of multiple scattering [Ref. 1]. With this method, all the previous theories can be simplified by conversion into an asymptotic form which is valid when the acoustic wavelength is small compared to the distance over which the sound speed varies appreciably. These theories agree with the laboratory experiments.

For a water channel with a small bottom slope, the sound field may be expressed approximately in terms of adiabatic normal modes. To facilitate prediction, R.D. Groves, Anton Nagl, H. Uberall, and G. L. Zauer [Ref. 3] modeled a wedgeshaped isovelocity ocean with a linearly-sloping, perfectlyrigid ocean floor using adiabatic normal modes. For a penetrable bottom the normal mode description fails when modes propagating upslope encounter the "critical depth"  $(H_c)$ , defined as the depth where the associate mode changes from fully trapped within the water channel to radiating energy into the bottom (cut off) [Ref. 4-6]. The parabolic equation can be used to explain the mechanism of sound energy radiation into the bottom [Ref. 7,8]. Such an equation was studied by F. B. Jensen and W. A. Kuperman [Ref. 9], with predictions that satisfactorily agreed with the experimental results for small ray angles. With some restrictions, normal mode theory is applicable for sound propagation in the wedge-shaped fluid with a fast bottom. The parabolic equation is good for fast and slow bottom, but with the restriction that horizontal ray angles must be less than 20°.

Another technique introduced to predict the propagation of sound in the wedge is the method of images. This method was derived from the simplest case; a monofrequency point source in a homogeneous ocean with parallel boundaries. The total pressure is the sum of an infinite number of spherical

waves from an infinite set of images. The restriction of this method is that it does not generalize to the case of inhomogeneous media or non-planar boundaries. In this work, this method will be studied.

#### B. THE METHOD OF IMAGES

In 1978, Coppens, Sanders, Ioannou, and Kawamura [Pef. 10], predicted the pressure amplitude and phase of the sound field along the bottom of a wedge-shaped fluid laver of density  $p_1$ , and speed of sound  $c_1$ , overlying a fast fluid bottom of density  $\rho_2$ , and speed of sound  $c_2 > c_1$  by applying the method of images in a computer program implementation. In 1984, Back [Ref. 11], and LeSesne [Ref. 12], implemented further improvements. Baek's computer program, WEDGE, and LeSesne's computer program XSLOPE were validated for several cases. NEDGE was developed for two-dimensional upslope probadation (the source and received are in the same vertical plane perpendicular to the shore line, and the receiver is closer to the apex than the source (Figure 1.1a)) and downslope propagation (the source is closer to the apex than the receiver (Figure 1.1b)). XSLOPE was developed for upslope, downslope, or cross-slope propagation (the source, receiver, and apex, are not necessarily in the same plane perpendicular to the shore line (Figure 1.1c)). In both programs, Paek and LaSesne assume that the fluid in the wedge and fluid in the bottom have constant densities, that

the speed of sound is constant, and that the interface between the fluids and the surface is smooth.

In both WEDGE and XSLOPE, all distances are scaled in units of the "dump distance." A dump distance X, as stated in Reference 10, is the distance from the apex measured along the interface at which the lowest mode attains cutoff. If the wedge angle is  $\beta$  (Figure 1.1c), then

$$X = \frac{\pi/2}{k_1 \sin \theta_c \tan \beta}$$
(1.1)

$$\theta_{\rm c} = \arccos(c_1/c_2) \tag{1.2}$$

where  $k_{\rm l}$  is the wave number in the wedge and  $\theta_{\rm C}$  is the crit-ical grazing angle for reflection of sound from the bottom. For  $\beta\,<\,<\,l$ 

$$X = H \tan \beta \tag{1.3}$$

This scaling distance negates the necessity of specifying frequency.

#### C. COMPUTER PROGRAM DSLOW

At the start of the work reported in this thesis, a computer program was obtained [Ref. 13], which is an extension of the WEDGE and XSLOPE for downslope configuration with a slow bottom. The computer model, DSLOW, developed to run on a desktop computer (Wang 2000), uses the method of images to predict the pressure amplitude and phase anywhere within the wedge fluid overlying a slow bottom in a crossslope configuration. A geometrical picture of this configuration is shown in Figure 1.1c.

Mathematically, the model used in WEDGE and XSLOPE is applicable in any condition. But consideration must be given for making it work for a slow bottom. In the case of a fast bottom, the dump distance has a physical meaning. The dump distance is expressed as a function of the critical angle. The critical angle is equal to arccos  $(c_1/c_2)$ . In the case of slow bottom,  $c_1/c_2$  is greater than 1, thus  $\arccos(c_1/c_2)$  is invalid; therefore, so is the dump distance. To facilitate the scaling factor, a "characteristic distance" or "scaling distance" is introduced. We need the scaling distance because, with this distance, our model will be independent of frequency as in the fast bottom case. There is also the hope that the use of a scaling distance will allow systematic observation of the pressure field. This scale distance  $X_{O}$  is the distance measured along the interface from the apex to the point where the lowest mode would attain cutoff if the fluids in the wedge and in the bottom were to be interchanged. The characteristic distance is defined by the following equation:

$$X_{O} = \frac{\pi/2}{\kappa_{2} \sin \theta_{O} \tan \beta}$$
(1.4)

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where  $\theta o = \arccos(c_2/c_1)$  and  $K_2 = \omega/c_2$  is the wave number in the bottom.

SYNG GOO

The following terms will be used throughout (see Figure 1.1):

- $\beta$  = wedge angle
- $R_1$  = distance of the source from the abex in units of  $\frac{X_0}{2}$
- $P_2$  = distance of the receiver from the abex in units of  $X_0$
- $\gamma$  = angle of elevation of the source above the bottom
- $Y_{O}$  = distance between the projection of the source and receiver on the shore line, scaled by  $X_{O}$
- $\rho_1/\rho_2$  is the ratio between the density of the fluid in the wedge  $(\rho_1)$  and the density of the fluid in the bottom  $(\rho_2)$
- $c_1/c_2$  is the ratio between the speed of sound in the wedge  $(c_1)$  and the speed of sound in the bottom  $(c_2)$ . A fast bottom occurs when  $c_2 > c_1$ ; a slow bottom occurs when  $c_2 < c_1$

The purpose of this research is the following:

- To transfer, test, and evaluate DSLOW program on the IBM 3300;
- To obtain numerical and graphical output for a number of cases; and
- To attempt to develop plausible explanations for any significant features observed.



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Figure 1.1 Geometry of the wedge

#### II. THEORY

### A. GENERAL VIEW OF A WEDGE PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION IN THE DOWNSLOPE CONFIGURATION

A general picture of the sound energy propagation within the wedge in downslope direction is given in Figure 2.1. If a sound source is placed at point S, ray 1 will reach the surface at point P with an incident angle  $\alpha$  with respect to the normal to the surface at this point. This ray is reflected by the surface at the same angle but with the phase 180° different. (On the surface, sound pressure is zero everywhere.) The reflected ray reaches the bottom with an incident angle  $\beta$  +  $\alpha$ . At great enough distance, ray 1 never reaches the bottom again. This ray does not contribute to a sound pressure field at the bottom. The pressure at the bottom should be very small according to the ray theory argument.

Using these ray-tracing methods, an estimated profile of the pressure amplitude versus the receiver depth can be made. When the source and the receiver are placed near the apex, the pressure amplitude is zero at the surface, a maximum somewhere within the wedge, and greater than zero at the bottom. In the case where the source is at a far distance, the pressure amplitude is equal to zero at the surface, a maximum somewhere within the wedge, and zero at the bottom.

Ray tracing will only give a rough approximation, not an exact solution, but ray tracing may be used as a guide. The method of images calculates the exact pressure amplitude at each point within the wedge subject only to the assumption inherent in using the plane-wave Rayleigh reflection coefficients.

#### B. SOUND PRESSURE AT A POINT IN THE WEDGE DOWNSLOPE PREDICTED BY THE METHOD OF IMAGES

Let the source be a scaled distance  $R_1$  from the apex and at an angle of  $\gamma$  measured from the bottom of the wedge. Let the receiver be a scaled distance  $R_2$  from the apex and at an angle  $\delta$  measured from the bottom.

Using Figure 2.2, let the upper half family of images be n = 1,2,3,4,... and the lower half family be n' = 1,2,3,4... Calculating the field resulting from source and images proceeds along the lines developed in [Ref. 14]. If  $\phi_n$  is the angle formed at the apex between the  $n_{th}$  image of the source and the receiver, then

> $\phi_1 = 2\beta - \delta - \gamma$   $\phi_2 = 2\beta - \delta + \gamma$   $\phi_3 = 4\beta - \delta - \gamma$   $\phi_4 = 4\beta - \delta + \gamma$ ....



Figure 2.1 Ray tracing in the wedge downslope

or more generally

$$p_n = (n + 1)\beta - \delta - \gamma$$
 for nodd  
 $p_n = n\beta - \delta + \gamma$  for neven

Which can be reduced to:

$$\phi_{n} = \{n + (1/2) [1 - (-1)^{n}] \} \beta + (-1)^{n} \gamma - \delta$$
(2.1)

$$\phi_n = 2 \text{ INT} \left[ \frac{n+1}{2} \right] \beta + (-1)^n \gamma - \delta$$
 (2.2)

where INT[ ] denotes the largest integer which is equal to, or smaller than the argument. Using the same method for the member n' of the lower family of images we obtain:

$$\phi_{n'} = \{n+(1/2)[1-(-1)^{n}]\}\beta + (-1)^{n}\gamma + \delta$$
(2.3)

$$\phi_{n} = 2 \text{ INT} \left[ \frac{n+1}{2} \right] \beta + (-1)^{n} \gamma + \delta$$
 (2.4)

Using the geometry of Figures 2.2 and 2.4, the distance between the n<sup>th</sup> and n<sup>th</sup> images to the receiver is respectively

$$r_n = \sqrt{R_1^2 + R_2^2 - 2R_1R_2\cos\phi_n}$$
 (2.5)

$$\mathbf{r}_{n} = \sqrt{R_{1}^{2} + R_{2}^{2} - 2R_{1}R_{2}\cos\phi_{n}}$$
(2.6)



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The angles  $\theta_{n0}$  and  $\theta_{n'0}$  for the  $n^{th}$  and  $n^{th}$  images respectively are

$$\theta_{no} = \arctan \left[ \frac{\sin \phi_n}{R_2/P_1 - \cos \phi_n} \right]$$
 (2.7)

and

$$\Theta_{n'o} = \arctan\left[\frac{\sin\phi_{n'}}{P_2/P_1 - \cos\phi_{n'}}\right]$$
 (2.8)

Define  $\theta_{nm}$  and  $\theta_{n'm}$  as the angles of incidence for the m<sup>th</sup> bounces from the bottom for the n and n' image respectively; m = 1,2,3... (The 0<sup>th</sup> bounce is the last one before reaching the receiver.) The geometry of Figures 2.2 and 2.3 give  $\theta_{nm}$  as follows:

• • • •

The general expression is

 $\theta_{nm} = \theta_{n0} - 2m\beta - \delta$ 

Using the same method

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 $\theta_{n'm} = \theta_{n'0} - 2m\beta + \delta$ 

The maximum number of bottom bounces of the n<sup>th</sup> and n<sup>th</sup> image is

 $m_{max} = M = IMT \left[\phi_n/2\beta\right] = IMT \left[\phi_n/2\beta\right]$ 



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The maximum number of images is

$$n_{max} = N = INT [\pi/\beta]$$

The reflection coefficients for the n<sup>th</sup> and n<sup>th</sup> images for a plane wave are:

$$R(\theta_{nm}) = \frac{\frac{\rho_1 c_1}{\rho_2 c_2} - \psi_{nm}}{\frac{\rho_1 c_1}{\rho_2 c_2} + \psi_{nm}}$$
(2.9)

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and

$$R(\theta_{n'm}) = \frac{\frac{\rho_1 c_1}{\rho_2 c_2} - \psi_{n'm}}{\frac{\rho_1 c_1}{\rho_2 c_2} + \psi_{n'm}}$$
(2.10)

where

$$\psi_{nm} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - (c_1/c_2)^2 \cos^2 \theta_{nm}}}{\sin \theta_{nm}}$$
(2.11)

and

$$\Psi_{n'm} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - (c_1/c_2)^2 \cos^2 \theta_{n'm}}}{\sin \theta_{n'm}}$$
(2.12)

The contribution from the upper family of images is

$$Pu = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{r_n} \exp(-jkr_n)(-1)INT[n+1)/2] \stackrel{M}{\underset{m=0}{\Pi R_{nm}}} (2.13)$$



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Figure 2.4 Geometry of symmetric images

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and for lower family of images is

$$Pu = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{r_n}, exp(-jkr_n)(-1)INT[n+1)/2 \prod_{m=0}^{M} R_n m$$
(2.14)

The total complex pressure is

$$P(x) = Pu + Pl$$
 (2.15)

1.1.1

#### III. DSLOW PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

#### A. PROGRAMS FEATURES

Since the mainframe graphics computer was available, the DISSPLA graphical program was used. The only programming language compatible with DISSPLA is FORTRAN. The numerical and graphical output is provided by this program. To give the pressure amplitude versus received angle graphs, twodimensional plotting is used.

The program DSLOW is run by placing the point source anywhere in the wedge and then placing the receiver at a distance downslope from the source. The receiver position was varied from zero degrees at the bottom to  $\beta$  at the surface. High resolution plotting was achieved by dividing the y-axis (received angle) into two regions. The first region covers the receiver angles from zero to 1/5 of the wedge angle. In this region  $\Delta\delta$  is equal to  $\beta/100$ . The second region covers the remaining wedge angle with  $\Delta\delta$  equal to  $\beta/10$ . This method provides 29 predictions of the pressure amplitude. Another method of plotting carried out was in the region of  $\delta > \beta/2$ ,  $\Delta\delta = \beta/10$ , and in the region of  $\delta$  $< \beta/2$ ,  $\Delta\delta = \beta/100$ . This method provides 54 points to be plotted.

#### B. NORMALIZATION

The main goal of this research was to investigate the profile of the pressure amplitude as a function of a number of variables. An example of the numerical values of the pressure amplitude, the normalized pressure amplitude, and the phase at each receiver position is displayed in Appendix C. The sound pressure becomes smaller as the receiver is moved away from the source. If the pressure amplitude were olotted directly, it would be difficult to compare the curves at near distances to the curves at far distances since at the near distances the pressure amplitude is much greater than the pressure amplitude in far distance. Thus, a normalized pressure amplitude is needed. The normalized pressure is obtained as follows: (see Figure 3.1)

We know that the sound pressure at the surface is zero and that the sound pressure is a small number greater than zero at a point near the surface. The first non-zero value of pressure P<sub>1</sub> is at the receiver angle,  $\delta_1 = 9\beta/10$ . We use this first calculated non-zero pressure amplitude as the normalization unit. The normalized pressure is

$$PN = P(\delta)/(P_1)$$
(3.1)

where  $P(\delta)$  is the pressure at any point within the wedge.



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Figure 3.1 Pressure amplitude normalization

#### C. PROCEDURE

Figures 3.2 through 3.7 represent the results when the receiver distance and source angle are fixed and the source distance and receiver angle are varied. Figures 3.8 through 3.13 represent the results when the source distance and angle are fixed and the received distance and angle are varied. These cases will be the foundation of our subsequent discussions.

The solid lines indicate the fitted curve and the dots indicate some values of the normalized pressure amplitude. In DSLOW, the dot appears at each third datum.

#### D. PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT

DSLOW was designed to provide three-dimensional graphs. For example, the x-axis represents the scaled source distance, the y-axis represents the scaled received distance, and z-axis represents the normalized pressure amplitude. To simplify the presentation, only twodimensional graphs were presented with the x-axis the normalized pressure amplitude and the y-axis the receiver angle 5. All curves are presented with the data fitted with a cubic spline.

The DSLOW program was executed to obtain numerical results of the phase angle, the pressure amplitude, and the normalized pressure amplitude at each receiver position. The first run used double precision for accuracy. Difficulties were encountered when the DISSPLA subprogram was attached for making the graphical output. When double precision and DISSPLA were not successful, the single precision was used, resulting in round-off error. (See Figure 3.8 at  $R_2 = 10.0.$ )

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RECEIVER ANGLE VS. PRESSURE



Figure 3.2 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied


Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with R2 fixed, R1 varied Figure 3.3



Figure 3.4 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied



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Figure 3.5 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied



Figure 3.6 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied



Figure 3.7 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied



Figure 3.8 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied



Figure 3.9 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied



Figure 3.10 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied





Figure 3.11 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied

RECEIVER ANGLE VS. PRESSURE



Figure 3.12 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied





Figure 3.13 Graphs of receiver angle  $\delta$  versus pressure amplitude with  $R_2$  fixed,  $R_1$  varied

#### IV. DISCUSSIONS

#### A. GRAPHICAL OUTPUT

The graphs of normalized pressure amplitude as a function of receiver angle  $\delta$  were investigated for various source distances R<sub>1</sub> and receiver distances R<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 3.2 to 3.13) while the other parameters are held contstant. For a given wedge angle  $\beta$  and sufficiently small source distance (Fig. 3.8 and 3.12), at all receiver distances, the pressure increases uniformly towards the bottom. For greater source distances, (Fig. 3.9 -3.11) the pressure attains a maximum within the wedge for all receiver distance.

As the receiver distance is increased (Fig. 3.9), a pressure minimum develops between the maximum and the bottom. An important property of the curves of pressure versus receiver angle when there is a maximum and minimum is that, at a specific receiver distance, the pressure above the minimum can be extrapolated to zero pressure on the bottom. (See Fig. 3.10 with  $R_2 = 32.$ ) This receiver distance is called the "transition point." So far, we do not know the properties of the transition point. We use the transition point for indicating the behavior of the curves when the parameter involved is varied. The transition point appeared twice in some cases, but in the following discussions the first transition point is the only point we

will be concerned with. (See Fig. 4.1 for transitions correspond to  $R_2 = 4.6$  and 6.4.)

## B. GRAPHS CLASSIFICATION

The development of curves with the source distance  $(R_1)$ and the receiver distance  $(R_2)$  as variables was observed. As  $R_1$  or  $R_2$  are varied the curve changes from a linear curve to a curve with an observable minimum (Fig. 3.9,  $R_2 = 5.0$ ) and finally to a curve without a minimum (Fig. 3.9,  $R_2 =$ 9.0). Three different types of curves resulted from the series of two-dimensional plotting. They are described below:

1. Type 1 Curves

Type 1 curves (Fig. 4.2) are those where the sound pressure is equal to zero at the surface and maximum at the bottom and is almost linearly dependent on depth. These curves are most pronounced when the source distance is much smaller than the characteristic distance. The closer the source is to the characteristic distance, the more nonlinear the curves (Figs. 3.3 and 3.4).

2. Type 2 Curves

Type 2 curves (Fig. 4.3) are those where the sound pressure is zero at the surface, maximum somewhere between the surface and the bottom with no minimum. These types of curves are generated when the source is placed at a point much greater than the characteristic distance. Type 2



curves indicate that the sound energy in the wedge is well collimated and that reflection is negligable.

3. Type 3 Curves

Type 3 curves (Fig. 4.4) are those that have a minimum pressure. These curves occur when the source is a distance slightly greater than, or less than, the characteristic distance. Tables 1, 2, and 3 of Appendix D show the receiver positions at the first transition points. Three different values of  $\beta$ , two different values of  $\rho_1/\rho_2$ , and two different values of  $c_1/c_2$  were used in making these tables. The transition point did not occur when  $\beta = 15^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1/\rho_2 = 0.90$ ,  $c_1/c_2 = 1.10$ . An explanation can be offered using the fact that for these particular sound-speed and density ratios an angle of intromission exists [Ref. 15]. Since the angle of intromission is the grazing angle at which the sound energy is completely transmitted into the slow bottom, it is plausible that no transition point pccurs.

C. TRANSITION POINT

By varying the wedge angle  $\beta$  in small increments  $\Delta\beta = 0.5^{\circ}$  starting with  $\beta = 5^{\circ}$ , and ending at  $\beta = 7^{\circ}$ , it was found that transition occurs for source distances within the range from 1.0 to 1.5.

For  $P_1 < 1.0$ , no transition point was observed; the curves are the Type 1. For  $1.0 < R_1 < 1.5$ , the evolution of

curves as the receiver distance varied can be explained as follows: first, the receiver is placed near the source and gradually it is shifted further from the source. The minimum in the pressure decreases reaching the point where the curves extrapolate to zero (the first transition point). Further detailed observations were made on this particular facet by varying the source distance and the receiver distances. The results of these observations are tabulated ard (raphed in Appendices D and E. When the receiver is boved away from the source, the minimum will reach a minimum pressure then the pressure increases until it reaches the point where the curves again can be extrapolated to zero, this is the second transition point (See Fig. 4.1).

For  $P_1 > 1.5$ , there will be no transition point. The curves are the Type 2.

The transition point as a function of source angle can be observed using the tables in Appendix D. In most cases the greater the source angle  $\gamma$ , the closer the transition point is to the apex. Graphs of transition point as a function of  $R_1$  (Appendix E) indicate that the smaller  $\beta$  the more regular the curves. This is easy to understand because the smaller  $\beta$ , the more accurate the observation of transition point; the greater  $\beta$  the less accurate the data.



Figure 4.2 Type 2 curves, indicating a pressure amplitude nearly linear with depth



Figure 4.3 Type 2 curves, indicating a well-collimated sound field as the source away from the apex



Figure 4.4 Type 3 curves, indicates the presence of reflection and refraction near the bottom

#### D. PARAMETER VARIATIONS

Variation of parameters was done by changing one parameter of interest while all others were held constant, for fixed source and receiver distances, and plotting the receiver angle versus normalized pressure amplitude.

The parameters 3,  $p_1/p_2$ , and  $c_1/c_2$ , were held constant and the pressure amplitude was plotted for various 5,  $R_1$ , and  $R_2$ . The  $\gamma$ 's are set at 3/4, 3/2, and 38/4. Variations in the shore distance ( $Y_0$ ) can be made because the program is available, but to simplify the investigation,  $Y_0$  was set equal to zero for all plots (Fig 4.2 is included as an example for  $Y_0 \neq 0$ ).

l. Variations of ß

Initially, the values of  $\beta$  investigated were: 6°, 10°, and 15°. The major effect created by altering the value of  $\beta$  is that, for the same values of R<sub>1</sub>,  $\rho_1/\rho_2$ , and  $c_1/c_2$ , the smaller  $\beta$ , the shorter the transition point (see Figs. 3.9 and 3.10, Tables 1, 2, and 3 of Appendix D).

2. Variations of  $\gamma$ 

The variations of  $\gamma$  from  $\gamma = \beta/4$  (the source is placed near the bottom) to  $\gamma = 3\beta/4$  (the source is placed near the surface) are presented in Tables 1, 2, and 3 indicated that the greater  $\gamma$  the shorter the transition point. It is not always true, for instance in Table 1 at  $\beta = 6^{\circ}$ , R<sub>1</sub> = 1.50, the greater  $\gamma$  the longer transition point, for the

rises. (See Appendix D.)

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3. Variations of  $c_1/c_2$  and  $\rho_1/\rho_2$ 

Variations of the acoustical parameters  $c_1/c_2$  and  $p_1/p_2$  were done, but did not give a significant variation of the sound pressure profile.

### V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### A. CONCLUSIONS

The program DSLOW gives good plots representative of the sound energy distribution within the wedge. The sound energy can be well collimated by the wedge. This phenomenon is strongly affected by the source position. At a source position close enough to the apex, sound energy is distributed linearly with respect to the depth. As the source moved away from the apex, the distribution of sound energy becomes more complex. Sometimes a minimum is found; this minimum may be caused by the presence of sound energy reflected by the bottom.

The source position plays a major role in forming the pressure distribution profile. The pressure distribution is also very sensitive to the parameter variation at small source distances, but it becomes insensitive at large source distance. The characteristic distance must have physical meanings rather than just an arbitrary number, because when the source distance in proximity to the characteristic distance, the model is most sensitive.

The model is restricted when the single precision mode generates round-off error and rough curves which do not allow for accurate analysis.

## B. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Single precision produces good results, but failed in some cases. Double precision would improve the program, but increase the execution time. This must be done by running the program in double precision, and accumulating the result in single precision before plotting the data by DISSPLA.

- It is suggested that the program be run using more realistic parameters and observing the effects on the characteristic distance and transition point.
- 3. Further study validating DSLOW in comparison with experimental results is suggested.

# APPENDIX A DSLOW ALGORITHM

The pressure amplitude calculation

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$$N_1 = INT[180 \beta]$$
 (eqn A.1)

$$K_1 X = \frac{\pi}{2\tan\beta \tan[\arccos(c_2 c_1)]}$$
(eqn A.2)

 $AL = \alpha K_2 = 0.0001$  (constant) (eqn A.3)

$$D_2 = Y_0^2 + R_1^2 + R_2^2$$
 (eqn A.4)

$$R_3 = 2R_1R_2 \tag{eqn A.5}$$

$$R_8 = \gamma D_2 - R_3 \cos[(N-1)\beta + \gamma - \delta] \qquad (eqn A.6)$$

$$R_9 = \sqrt{D_2 - R_3 \cos[(N-1)\beta + \gamma + \delta]}$$
 (eqn A.7)

$$S_2 = (-1)^{INT(N_1 2)}$$
 (eqn A.8)

$$W_1 = 2AL(c_1 \ c_2)^2$$
 (eqn A.9)

$$SI = \{\{R_1 \ sin[(N-1)\beta + \gamma] - 2[INT((N-1) \ 2)\beta + R_2 \ sin[2INT((N-1) \ 2)\beta - \delta]\}\} \ R_8$$
(eqn A.10)

$$CI = \sqrt{(1-SI^2)}$$
 (eqn A.11)

 $T = SI D_1$  (eqn A.12)

$$W_0 = (-c_2 + c_1 c_2)$$
 (eqn A.13)

$$Y = \sqrt{W_0^2 + W_1^2}$$
 (eqn A.14)

$$Z = |W_0|$$
 (eqn A.15

$$Y_1 = \sqrt{(Y + W_0)} 2$$
 (eqn A.16)

$$Y_2 = \sqrt{(Y - W_0) 2}$$
 (eqn A.17)

$$Z_1 = \frac{T_1 \cdot Y_2}{(T \cdot Y_2)^2 + Y_1^2}$$
 (eqn A.18)

$$Z_2 = \frac{Y_1}{(T - Y_2)^2 + Y_1^2}$$
 (eqn A.19)

$$Z_5 = \frac{(T^2 \cdot Y_2)^2 \cdot Y_1^2}{(T^2 \cdot Y_2)^2 + Y_1^2}$$
 (eqn A.20)

$$Z_6 = \frac{2Y_1T}{(T^2 - Y_2)^2 + Y_1^2}$$
 (eqn A.21)

$$P_{1} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (-1)^{1NT(N/2)} \{Z_{5} \cos(R_{8n}K_{1}X) + Z_{6} \sin(R_{8n}K_{1}X), R_{8n}$$
 (eqn A.22)

$$P_{2} = \sum_{n=1}^{1} (-1)^{INT(N/2)} \{-Z_{5} \sin(R_{8n}K_{1}X) + Z_{6} \cos(R_{8n}K_{1}X) / R_{8n}$$
 (eqn A.23)

$$P_{3} = \sum_{n=1}^{N_{1}} (-1)^{INT(N/2)} \{Z_{5} \cos(R_{9n}K_{1}X) + Z_{6} \sin(R_{9n}K_{1}X) \} R_{9n}$$
 (eqn A.24)

$$P_{4} = \sum_{n=1}^{N_{1}} (-1)^{INT(N/2)} \{-Z_{5} \sin(R_{9n}K_{1}X) + Z_{6} \cos(R_{9n}K_{1}X) + R_{9n}$$
 (eqn A.25)  
$$P_{5} = P_{1} + P_{2}$$
 (con A.26)

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$$P_6 = P_3 + P_4$$
 (eqn A.27)

$$P_{tot} = R_1 \sqrt{P_5^2 + P_6^2}$$
 (eqn A.28)

## **APPENDIX B**

## DSLOW PROGRAM

THIS PROGRAM CALLED DSLOW IS CALCULATING THE SOUND PRESSURE WITHIN THE WEDGE OVERLYING SLOW BOTTOM FLUID AND DOWN-SLOPE \*\*\* \*\* \*\* \*\* \*\*\* \*\* \_ -\*\* \*\*^^^^^ 

 Image: Second state
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 Image: Second state</t ž THE MAIN PROGRAM. CALCULATES . UPPER AND LOWER PATH OF RAYS. \*\* K = 0
N1 = INT(180./B)
T6 = I80./PI
B = B/T6
C2 = CC\*2
D2 = (Y0\*Y0)+(R1\*R1)+(R2\*R2)
R3 = 2\*R1\*R2
T4 = Pi/(2\*TAN(ACOS(1/CC))\*TAN(B))
T001 = ACOS(1/CC)
T002 = TAN(B)
T001 = ACOS(1/CC)
T003 = 2\*T002\*T00
T4 = PI/T003 \*\* -------

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C420 C C - 40 FORMAT (3X, 12, 6X, 12, 5X, F6.4, 10X, F6.4, 3X, F6.4, 3X, F6.4, 10X, F7.4) WRITE (6,420) N, 12, 5X, F6.4, 10X, F6.4, 3X, F6.4, 10X, F7.4) SQRT(E(I)\*E(I)+F(I)\*F(I)), ATAN(F(I)/E(I)) -C500 C510 C600 C Ç610 Ç 6

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	$Z^{2} = Z^{5}$ $T^{2} = T^{4} \times R^{9}(N)$ $Z^{3} = COS(T)$ $Z^{4} = -S^{2} N(T)$
	$25 = 21 \times 23 + 22 \times 23$ $26 = 21 \times 24 + 22 \times 23$ $P1 = P1 + 52 \times 25 / R9 (N)$ $P2 = P2 + 52 \times 26 / R9 (N)$
700 710	FORMAT(' LOWER PATH NO=',3X,'RE(REFL)= ',3X,'IM(REFL)= ') WRITE ( 6,700) FORMAT(6X,12,12X,F6.4,12X,F6.4) WRITE ( 6,710) N,52*Z1,52*Z2
30	$\begin{array}{c} \hline CONTINUE \\ K = K+1 \\ DZ(K) = D \times T6 \\ \hline DZ(K) = COT(D1 \times D1 \times D2 \times D2) \times D1 \end{array}$
810 15	<pre>%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%</pre>
10	$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} $
811 31	FORMAT(2X,13,7X,F5.2,8X,F9.6,8X,F9.6,6X,F9.6) CONTINUE Y0=Y0+0.5 R2=R2*0.50
111 ****	CONTINUE STOP END ***********************************
:* :****	LA SUBPROGRAM FOR PLOTIING BY TEKEISOR SHERPA ************************************
	CALL MERBUF CALL TEKS18 CALL COMPRS CALL NOBRDR CALL PAGE(15, 12.) CALL AREA2D(11, 9.) CALL HEIGHT(.2),
	CALL XNAME('NORMALIZED PRESSURE AMPLITUDES',29) CALL YNAME('RECEIVER ANGLE(DEG)\$',19) CALL YTTCKS{5}
	$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \\ \end{array} $
	CALL GRID(2,2) CALL HEADIN(2)REC.ANGLE VS. PRESSURES',-100,1.8,1) CALL MESSAG('WEDGE ANGLE: S',100,8.7,) CALL MESSAG('15:00,1,100, 'ABUT', 'ABUT')
	CALL MESSAG('C1/C2: 5',100', ABUT', ABUT') CALL MESSAG('C1/C2: 5',100', ABUT', ABUT') CALL MESSAG('L1,505',100', ABUT', ABUT')
	CALL MESSAG('SOURCE ANGLE: S',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('11,255',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('3,755',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('3,755',100,'ABUT','ABUT')
	CALL MESSAG(' 7.505',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('SOURCE.DIST.: \$',100,'ABUT') CALL MESSAG('0.25 \$',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('1.10 \$',100,'ABUT','ABUT')
	CALL MESSAG('1.60s',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('0.95's' 100, 'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('RÉC.DIST.INIT: S',100', 4.5) CALL MESSAG('0.50'S',100,'ABUT', 'ABUT')
	CALL MESSAG('1.00 \$',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('3.00 \$',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('3.00 \$',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL MESSAG('BEC, DIST INCRMT', \$',100,8,4,0)
* * * *	CALL MESSAG('TWICES' 100 'ABUT', 'ABUT') CALL MESSAG('2.005 100, 'ABUT', 'ABUT') CALL MESSAG('SHO, DIST.INIT'S', 100, 'ABUT') CALL MESSAG('1.00 S' 100 'ABUT', 'ABUT')
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	CALL MESSAG('SHO, DIST: \$) 100 8. 3.5) CALL MESSAG('0.00 \$',100,'ABUT','ABUT') CALL RESET('ALL') CALL PARAS CALL PARAS CALL PARAS
	CALL CURVE(PN, DZ, 29,0) CONTINUE CALL ENDPL(0) CALL DONEPL STOP END
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## APPENDIX C NUMERICAL RESULTS OF DSLOW

WEDGE ANG SOURCE DI RHO1/RHO2 K1X =	LE = 10.00 STANCE=0.75 = 0.80 19.44	SOURCE ANGLE = RECEIVER DISTAN( C1/C2= 1.10	2.50 E= 9.00 SHOR ALPH	E DISTANCE= 0.00 A/K2= 0.0001
REC.POS	REC.ANGLE	PRES.AMPLITUDE	PHASE ANGLE	NORM.PRESS
			6-1325410799907498661112099115096 98514714578864856107799907498656111209911518099 98551714778875578854856103771518099 1110000999888887758858405331537157808755 1111111110000099888887755840510147808745 1111111111000000000000000000000000000	

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WEDGE ANC SOURCE D RHO1/RHO X1X =	GLE = 10.00 ISTANCE=0.75 2= 0.80 19.44	SOURCE ANGLE = RECEIVER DISTAN CI/C2= 1.10	CE <sup>2.50</sup> 4.50 SHOR ALPH	E DISTANCE= 0.00 A/K2= 0.0001
REC.POS	REC.ANGLE	PRES.AMPLITUDE	PHASE ANGLE	NORM.PRESS
1777456789017774567890-1777456789			024998962498607915415315894 57991559384689986079154 57591555555478798888831290292560937090814269245560937090814269245560937090814264203 55555555554444444973320871878280871682802867 111111111111111111111111111111111111	$\begin{array}{c} 19191916644974373086990399342401\\ 4354670386295344732629537554570164897785086755545016487728500\\ 546890244680952944339655467036124498000\\ 546890244680959521449396554752500\\ 54689024468095952144939655475549200\\ 54689024468095952144939655475549200\\ 54689024468095952144939655475549200\\ 54689024468095952144939655475549200\\ 54689024468095952144939655475549200\\ 54689025556475554551164695656544932110\\ 54689025556475554551164695655475549500\\ 546890255564755545511646959655449500\\ 5468902555647555645511646955655475549500\\ 5468902555647555645511646956554755549500\\ 5468902555666996565656565655565565655655655655556555550\\ 54689025556565555655555555555555555555555555$

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WEDGE A SOURCE RHO1/RH K1X =	$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{NGLE} &= & 10,00\\ \text{DISTANCE} = 0.75\\ 02 = & 0.80\\ 19.44 \end{array}$	SOURCE ANGLE = RECEIVER DISTAN C1/C2= 1.10	CE= 2.25 SHOL ALPI	RE DISTANCE= 0.00 HA/K2= 0.0001
REC.POS	REC.ANGLE	PRES.AMPLITUDE	PHASE ANGLE	NORM.PRESS
	000000000000000000000000000000000000000			99914288500138855390957700957088068832800 99951691559656565685573300600 95516914233318550479998511568380277000 55544444433333758827418558838277000 5554444443333375882741855883877000 55645666666666666666666667741896887789000 56666666666666666666666666666666666
		67		

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WEDGE AN SOURCE D RHO1/RHO K1X =	$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{GLE} &=& 10.00\\ \text{ISTANCE} = 0.75\\ \text{2=} & 0.80\\ 19.44 \end{array}$	SOURCE ANGLE = RECEIVER DISTAN C1/C2= 1.10	CE <sup>2.50</sup> L.13 SHOP	RE DISTANCE= 0.00 HA/K2= 0.0001
REC.POS	REC.ANGLE	PRES.AMPLITUDE	PHASE ANGLE	NORM. PRESS
-2000-0000-000-0000-0000-000 	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	$\begin{array}{c} 947233359818886982540280171252991\\ 226553344372736148869825409280191\\ 03454437273614889501596140374600\\ 9999680133401178865189203961610374600\\ 9999680133401178896901111920396159610374600\\ 9999990000011111920396100050\\ 0000000111111920396100050\\ 000000011111112920396100050\\ 0000000111111111109774147300\\ 0000000111111111109774147300\\ 0000000111111111109774147300\\ 000000001111111111009774147300\\ 000000000000000000\\ 00000000000000$	$\begin{array}{c} -0.542\\ -9.542\\$	6250511155586978556085959780602 6421628250563926757444085959780602 193527889908585978757444083677880602 789990048269287799400200729377800 789990004111222729740020072937700 78999000011112227479340020072600 789990000111122277990231405555991917000 78999000011112227793400200776000 78999000011112228783393990000776000 789990000111122287833940020776000 789990000111122287833940020776000 78999000011112228783940020776000
		68		

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WEDGE ANO SOURCE DI RHO1/RHO K1X =	LE = 10.00 ISTANCE=0.75 2= 0.80 19.44	SOURCE ANGLE = RECEIVER DISTANC C1/C2= 1.10	CE <sup>2.50</sup> 0.56 SHOR ALPH	E DISTANCE= 0.00 A/K2= 0.0001
REC.POS	REC.ANGLE	PRES.AMPLITUDE	PHASE ANGLE	NORM.PRESS
123450780011111111111111100010101000	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	4257388957671349476388243451210 2475023310071491804129948617240 258033640680422533067725827860 9000001111111111111111111111111111111	90771188456920147966576660247166 44620980760256641669748177166 60488711597802468024567889057578970 01111227777924680274567888026977897057578970 011112277779246800745678880268449697481 000000000000000000000000000000000000	883333382983441852538983623993600 5462246226435459258058541051600 924305874911424540885515556636455003000 9714761142454090000000060540051807000 45555566666677577776666664704789000 455555666666677777776666664704789000 4555556566666677777776666664704789000 45555555555555555555555555555555555
WEDGE ANO SOURCE DI RHO1/RHO2 K1X =	LE = 10.00 STANCE=0.75 2= 0.80 19.44	SOURCE ANGLE = RECEIVER DISTAN C1/C2= 1.10	CE <sup>2.50</sup> 0.28 SHOR ALPH	E DISTANCE= 0.00 A/K2= 0.0001
--	---	---	--------------------------------------	---
REC.POS	REC.ANGLE	PRES.AMPLITUDE	PHASE ANGLE	NORM.PRESS
12222222222222222222222222222222222222	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	6111776958496111218597084586851 31975208530496111218597084586851 269371125824693714562469371454160 43221110998853076624324956113154160 666666666665555555555555555555555555		445149678291774627734261509 3725419777775306274627734261509 766543727777753066271447900045143500 7665437277777530627146789000 76654372176887657788826577889000 7.6654372106877166667778899000 7.665437210989699999000 7.66543711677010989699999000 7.66543711677010989909999000 7.665437116777775574557776577765777657879000 7.66543711677777557776577765777657776577765777

## APPENDIX D TABLES

### TABLE 1

# RECEIVER DISTANCE AT THE FIRST TRANSITION POINT, FOR CONSTANT $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.80$ , $c_1 c_2 = 1.10$

 $\beta = 6^{\circ}$ ,  $K_1 X = 32.61$ 

	$R_1 = 1.10$	$R_1 = 1.20$	$R_1 = 1.30$	$R_1 = 1.40$	$R_1 = 1.50$
$\gamma = \beta \downarrow$	5.2	5.0	5.9	7.3	9.8
$\gamma = \beta 2$	5.2	4.7	5.7	6.8	9.9
$\gamma = 3\beta - 4$	4.0	4.5	5.4	7.0	10.5

 $\beta = 10^{\circ}$ .  $K_1 X = 19.44$ 

	$R_1 = 0.80$	$R_1 = 0.90$	$R_1 = 1.00$	$R_1 = 1.10$	$R_1 = 1.20$
$\gamma = \beta \downarrow$	17.5	24.0	33.0	52.0	72.0
$\gamma = \beta 2$	12.5	17.0	24.0	42.0	60.0
$\gamma = 3\beta - 4$	10.6	17.0	22.0	40.0	58.0

 $\beta = 15^{\circ}$ .  $K_1 X = 12.79$ 

	$R_1 = 1.30$	$R_1 = 1.40$	$R_1 = 1.50$	$R_1 = 1.60$	$R_1 = 1.70$
$\gamma = \beta 4$	S.1	8.2	8.7	9.8	11.4
$\gamma = \beta 2$	6.9	7.0	7.8	8.9	10.9
$\gamma = 3\beta - 4$	9.8	12.0	15.0	19.0	29.0

 $\beta = 6^{\circ}$ ,  $K_1 X = 22.53$ 

	$R_1 = 1.30$	$R_1 = 1.40$	$R_1 = 1.50$	$R_1 = 1.60$	$R_1 = 1.70$
$\gamma = \beta + 1$	3.37	3.6	3.92	4.4	4.96
$\gamma = \beta 2$	3.155	3.42	3.78	4.36	4.96
$\gamma = 3\beta 4$	3.07	3.34	3.74	4.2	5.1

 $\beta = 10^{\circ}$ ,  $K_1 X = 13.43$ 

	$R_1 = 0.80$	$R_1 = 0.90$	$R_1 = 1.00$	$R_1 = 1.10$	$R_1 = 1.20$
$\gamma = \beta - 1$	6.1	11.3	18.0	40.0	60.0
$\gamma = \beta 2$	6.5	8.2	14.5	25.0	40.0
$\gamma = 3\beta 4$	5.05	5.45	12.0	18.0	30.0

 $\beta = 15^{\circ}$ ,  $K_1 X = 8.84$ 

	$R_1 = 0.80$	$R_1 = 0.90$	$R_1 = 1.00$	$R_1 = 1.10$	$R_1 = 1.20$
$\gamma = \beta 4$	36.0	40.0	52.0	60.0	64.0
$\gamma = \beta 2$	24.0	26.0	32.0	46.0	54.0
$\gamma = 3\beta - 4$	19.50	23.0	28.0	38.0	58.0

## TABLE 3

**RECEIVER DISTANCE** AT THE FIRST TRANSITION POINT, FOR CONSTANT  $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.90$ ,  $c_1 c_2 = 1.10$ 

 $\beta = 6^{\circ}$ ,  $K_1 X = 32.61$ 

	$R_1 = 1.10$	$R_1 = 1.20$	$R_1 = 1.30$	$R_1 = 1.40$	$R_1 = 1.50$
$\gamma = \beta 4$	3.66	4.1	4.9	6.2	11.0
$\gamma = \beta 2$	3.35	3.9	4.7	7.0	no
$\gamma = 3\beta 4$	3.24	3.76	4.75	7.3	9.8

 $\beta = 10^{\circ}$ ,  $K_1 X = 19.44$ 

<b>_</b>	$R_1 = 1.30$	$R_1 = 1.40$	$R_1 = 1.50$	$R_1 = 1.60$	$R_1 = 1.70$
$\gamma = \beta 4$	9.8	11.0	14.0	40.0	60.0
$\gamma = \beta 2$	7.6	8.6	11.0	19.0	40.0
$\gamma = 3\beta + 1$	6.7	7.6	10.0	21.0	45.0





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APPENDIX E GRAPHS OF  $R_1$  VERSUS  $R_2$  AT THE FIRST TRANSITION POINT



Figure E.2 R<sub>1</sub> vs R<sub>2</sub> at the first trans. points, for  $\beta = 10^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.80$ ,  $c_1 c_2 = 1.10$ .



Figure E.3 R<sub>1</sub> vs R<sub>2</sub> at the first trans. points, for  $\beta = 15^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.80$ ,  $c_1 c_2 = 1.10$ .





Figure E.4 R<sub>1</sub> vs R<sub>2</sub> at the first trans. points, for  $\beta = 6^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.80$ ,  $c_1 c_2 = 1.20$ .



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Figure E.5 R<sub>1</sub> vs R<sub>2</sub> at the first trans. points, for  $\beta = 10^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1$ ,  $\rho_2 = 0.80$ ,  $c_1$ ,  $c_2 = 1.20$ .



Figure E.6 R<sub>1</sub> vs R<sub>2</sub> at the first trans. points, for  $\beta = 15^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.80$ ,  $c_1 c_2 = 1.20$ .



Figure E.7  $R_1$  vs  $R_2$  at the first trans. points, for  $\beta = 6^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.90$ ,  $c_1 c_2 = 1.10$ .

RI VERSUS R2 AT TRANSITION POINT



Figure E.8 R<sub>1</sub> vs R<sub>2</sub> at the first trans. points, for  $\beta = 10^{\circ}$ ,  $\rho_1 \rho_2 = 0.90$ ,  $c_1 c_2 = 1.10$ .

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